DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 048 841 HE 002 151

AUTHOR	Warner, Donald F.; And Others
TITLE	Summer Sessions in Colleges and Universities of the United States 1960.
INSTITUTION	Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C.
REPORT NO	OE-56012
PUB DATE	63
NOTE	112p.
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$0.65 HC-$6.58
DESCRIPTORS	Administration, Enrollment, Faculty, Financial Support, *Higher Education, *Summer Schools, Surveys

ABSTRACT

This report provides information about summer sessions of institutions of higher education in the United States based on policies and procedures characteristic of the 1960 sessions. Information is presented on (1) the history and development of summer sessions; (2) their characteristics, including their steady increase, future plans for them, curricula, and purposes; (3) financing, including budgets, fees, and scholarships; (4) administration; (5) faculty; and (6) students and programs, including enrollments, credits earned, and degree requirements completed. The survey questionnaire is included in the appendix. (AF)

OE-56012

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Summer Sessions in Colleges and Universities of the United States

1960

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Highlights

Summer sessions have been a part of American higher education since the first normal school summer session in 1839. By 1960, summer sessions had progressed in size, in purpose, and in number to become an integral part of higher education.

✦ ✦ ✦

The 6-week term was the most frequent pattern of organization, followed by 8-week and 5-week sessions.

✦ ✦ ✦

Although single-term summer sessions were prevalent regionally (680 of the 1,369 institutions), the two-term pattern was more frequent in the Southeast and Southwest.

✦ ✦ ✦

Financing remained an outstanding problem. Although a large majority of colleges and universities included summer session expenditures as a part of their 12-month fiscal budget, nearly one-half of the institutions also reported that the summer session had to be self-sustaining.

✦ ✦ ✦

The summer session director was usually a person regularly employed full time by the institution, but only a portion of his time was allotted to summer session administration.

✦ ✦ ✦

The registration of more than 1 student in 5 for graduate work indicated a growth and strength of advanced study programs in the summer session.

✦ ✦ ✦

There was a preponderance of men (54.8 percent) enrolled in degree programs in summer sessions of 1960.

ED048841

OE-56012
Circular No. 700

Summer Sessions in Colleges and Universities of the United States

1960

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Superintendent of Documents Catalog No. FS 5.256:56012

U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
WASHINGTON : 1963

For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 20402 – Price 65 cents

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Foreword

THIS SURVEY of summer sessions of 1960 in institutions of higher education provides information of nationwide and regional scope on a subject of immediate concern to the higher education community. Many college and university administrators are evaluating the expanded summer session as a possible means of increasing service at a rate greater than that at which facilities can be expanded.

This is the final report of the findings of the survey questionnaire, *Summer Session Programs 1960: A Comprehensive Survey of Policies and Procedures in Summer Sessions of Institutions of Higher Education.* Three preliminary reports have already been published:

Travel Programs Sponsored by Institutions of Higher Education in Summer Sessions, 1960. OE–54028.

Regular-Year Scholarship Programs of Institutions of Higher Education Applicable for Summer Session Study, 1960. OE–55033.

Summer Session Offerings in Institutions of Higher Education: 1960, A Directory. OE–56009.

Because this is the first comprehensive study of summer sessions to be conducted and reported on a nationwide scale, it should be of unusual value to members of boards of trustees, presidents, deans, and directors of summer sessions, faculty members, and others who are interested in the expansion and improvement of opportunities for higher education.

Although it is impossible to make individual acknowledgment to the many persons in the institutions of higher education and in the U.S. Office of Education who assisted in providing information for this report, the authors wish to express their appreciation to all whose generous and interested cooperation made its completion possible. They are particularly grateful to the following members of the Advisory Committee who served as critic readers of the manuscript and made numerous helpful suggestions and comments: Dr. J. Howard Kramer, President, Northern State Teachers College, Aberdeen, S. Dak.; Dr. J. R. Little, Dean, Summer Session, University of Colorado; Dr. Hugh McFadden, Director of Summer School, University of Wyoming; Dr. Peter S. Mousolite, United States Office of Education Regional Representative for Higher Education; Dr. Elmer T. Peterson, then Dean of Summer Sessions, State University of Iowa; Dr. John E. Phay, Assistant Provost for the Summer Session, University of Mississippi; Dr. Ralph E. Pickett, Associate Dean, School of Education, and Director of Summer Sessions, New York University; Dr. Harold O. Ried, Director of Summer Session, University of New Mexico; and Dr. Loran G. Townsend, Director of Summer Session, University of Missouri. In addition, Brother Leo V. Ryan, Ph. D., Director of Continuing Education and Summer Sessions, Marquette University, was subsequently added and served as a critic reader, as did Dr. Harry H. Davis, Provost of the State University of Iowa and temporarily Director of its Summer Sessions.

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Associate Commissioner for
Educational Research and Development

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

FOR WELL OVER A CENTURY, summer sessions have been making a major and growing contribution to American culture. Annually from June to August or September, more than two-thirds of American colleges and universities hold such sessions, utilizing billions of dollars worth of facilities which would otherwise lie idle, equipping hundreds of thousands of teachers for more effective service to their communities, enabling even more hundreds of thousands of undergraduate students to hasten the completion of their educational programs, and offering graduate students opportunity to pursue advanced degree work in many academic areas. It is no exaggeration to say that the social value of summer sessions is immeasurable.

This report provides information about summer sessions of institutions of higher education in the United States based on the policies and procedures characteristic of the sessions of 1960. It is hoped that such data will assist those persons who are responsible for program planning in institutions of higher education:

1. **To determine ways and means of making summer session programs more effective;**
2. **To determine needs for new programs, or the modification or expansion of existing ones;**
3. **To attain an understanding of the relationship of the summer session to other facets of higher education programing;**
4. **To increase and improve year-round programs of higher education and determine the possibility of their expansion to a larger number of colleges and universities as a means of accommodating the increasing number of students who during the next decade will be applying for admission at all levels of higher education.**

Summer session, as defined in this report, includes all programs offered and primarily sponsored by an institution of higher education during the summer months. The summer session is frequently divided into two or more terms. The "main term" as represented in this study was selected from the data furnished as the term most representative. Factors such as enrollment, number of credit hours, and number of faculty members were all determinants in the designation of the main terms; however, the final choice was arbitrary and was made solely for the purpose of arriving as nearly as possible at an unduplicated count of the number of students enrolled in the summer sessions in 1960.

Although some of the information for this report came from secondary materials, it was primarily obtained from a printed questionnaire developed in collaboration with college and university administrators who had held major responsibilities for summer session programs. The questionnaire was distributed to the presidents of 2,046 institutions of higher education, requesting data pertaining to their summer session programs in 1960. The source of the mailing list was the *Education Directory, 1959–60, Part 3, Higher Education.* In some instances, branches or junior colleges of institutions which were being operated in a different geographical location from the main campus were counted as separate institutions; therefore, the total number of institutions represented in this report (2,046) is greater than the total number (2,011) shown in the *Education Directory.*

There were 1,968 questionnaires returned, representing a 96.2 percent response. Table 1 shows the responses and the number of institutions with and those without summer sessions, by region.

To give orientation and perspective to the practices which are being used today by institutions of higher education in conducting summer sessions, a brief history of summer sessions in the United States is included in chapter II. It may be that certain present practices are the consequences of outmoded techniques and, therefore, should be discarded or modified. Therefore an understanding of the origins of the summer session programs will stimulate an increased ability to criticize them constructively and contribute to their future effectiveness. Chapter III includes information on curriculums, length of terms, purposes of programs, and future plans of 1960 summer sessions. Chapter IV contains information pertaining to the financing of summer sessions in 1960; chapters V and VI give data about the administration and faculty. Chapter VII presents information pertaining to students and programs; and chapter VIII summarizes the findings of the survey and includes recommendations for further study.

There are several recurring themes in the text. One is the constant increase of summer sessions in size, in types of services offered, and in varieties of clients enrolled. Another, also looking to the past, is the success of summer sessions in diminishing or eliminating the authentic bases for the criticisms which have been leveled against them in the past. The third, looking to the future, is an analysis of the extent and way in which summer sessions have approached or achieved equality with regular sessions in their institutions in integrated, year-round programs of education. The pending flood of enrollments in institutions of higher education may well make this the most significant point in the survey.

Table 1.—Institutional response to questionnaire, "Summer Session Programs, 1960: A Comprehensive Survey of Policies and Procedures in Summer Sessions of Institutions of Higher Education," by region. Aggregate United States,[1] 1960

Region	Number of institutions			
	Receiving questionnaires	Having a summer session	Not having a summer session	Not responding
Aggregate United States	**2,046**	**1,369**	**599**	**78**
New England	174	97	69	8
Mideast	407	243	133	31
Great Lakes	341	230	104	7
Plains	249	161	83	5
Southeast	440	318	110	12
Southwest	149	118	28	3
Rocky Mountains	53	35	16	2
Far West	217	157	52	8
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	16	10	4	2

[1] The 50 States, the District of Columbia, and all outlying parts.

Chapter II

History and Development of Summer Sessions

THE SUMMER SESSIONS of institutions of higher education of the United States in 1960 were widely varied both in organizational structure and in relation to the regular-year sessions conducted by the institutions. Although all subject fields were included in the many programs, those of some institutions appeared to have been limited in both scope and depth when compared with the offerings in their regular-year sessions.

A majority of the summer sessions in 1960 emerged as additions to the regular-year sessions. This characteristic—and others—probably had historical origins; therefore it is important to trace the evolution of summer sessions in their slow and painful, but steady, progress toward equality with regular sessions.

This account is necessarily sketchy and brief, with gaps of omission and areas of doubt; for there has been little research on the subject, and available materials are scattered in coverage and lean in facts. Although this account is rather negative in tone, it must be remembered that there were always some sessions which meticulously maintained quality and standards, where the ensuing criticisms would not find application. The purpose of writers of earlier days was often to reform the poor summer sessions, not to praise the good. By a kind of Gresham's Law, exposure of the inferior tended to taint the reputations of all. This study does not propose to revive this distortion, but to point out that in the 19th century and the early part of the 20th century there were some good summer sessions and some bad ones, bad by the standards of that day as well as this.

Origins and Early Development

Summer sessions have been a part of American higher education at least since July 3, 1839, when the State Normal School at Lexington, Massachusetts, opened with three students in attendance.[1] Summer study arose from the coincidence of several factors. A long summer vacation, simultaneous at all levels of education and geared to an agricultural economy where children must work on their parents' farms during the summer, and the deficient preparation of elementary and secondary school teachers made summer training programs inevitable. Other causes included the desire to make greater use of college facilities, supplement the incomes of underpaid college teachers, accelerate the progress of undergraduate (and later, graduate) education, and offer adult education programs at a convenient season. In periods of growing college enrollments, summer sessions would increase the capacity of building and teaching facilities without drastic and expensive expansion.[2]

The contemporary summer school did not emerge until late in the 19th century, but its antecedents and germinal institutions preceded it by a number of decades. One of the most important of these was the teachers institute, which first appeared in Hartford, Connecticut, in 1839.[3] Seven other States soon followed this example, and 32 by 1885, led by Tennessee with 454 institutes. This rapid multiplication eloquently bespeaks the need for training of American teachers of that day.[4]

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[1] Harvard Graduate School of Education, Harvard Documents in the History of Education, I. *The Journals of Cyrus Peirce and Mary Swift, The First State Normal School in America,* Cambridge, Mass., 1926, p. 3–51.

Historic accounts used in the following section include: George Peabody College for Teachers *Contributions to Education,* No. 3; Cornelius D. Judd, *The Summer School as an Agency for the Training of Teachers in the United States,* Nashville, Tenn., 1921, p. 9–29; James C. Egbert, *University Summer Schools,* U.S. Bureau of Education Bulletin 1922, No. 3, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, p. 3–4; Watson Dickerman, *The Historic Development of Summer Sessions in Higher Institutions in the United States,* Chicago, 1948, p. 1–9; John Stecklein and others, *The Summer Session: Its Role in the University of Minnesota Program,* Minneapolis, Minn., 1958, p. 1–12 (henceforth cited as Stecklein); Howard S. Miller, *The University of Wisconsin: Summer Sessions 1885–1960,* Madison, Wis., p. 1–3.

[2] James H. Smart, *Teachers' Institutes,* Circulars of the Bureau of Education, 1885, No. 2, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1885, p. 5–8; *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1886–87,* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1888, p. 402–3.

[3] *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1886–87,* p. 402–3; William C. Ruediger, *Agencies for the Improvement of Teachers in Service,* U.S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin 3, 1911, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1911, p. 10.

The number and variety of these institutes makes generalization a treacherous business. However, it can be ventured that they were short, 2 weeks or less in duration, were generally in the summer months, and were poorly supported financially. Their diverse programs centered around four purposes: (1) to increase subject-matter knowledge; (2) to inculcate better methods of presentation; (3) to regenerate teacher morale; and (4) to entertain. In many of them, the day was organized into subject hours coinciding with those in the local elementary or secondary schools. The institute lecturer imparted the same materials which the assembled teachers would presumably later transmit to their own students, spicing the monologue with clever tips on presentation. The level of such instruction needs no comment.[5]

The institute was useful in the day when untrained teachers regarded their work as a stop-gap pending marriage, a political career, or the pursuit of legal or medical study. Almost any program would benefit them. When increased training requirements produced a corps of career teachers, the institutes ceased to instruct their clients and began to bore them. Their inherent faults stood forth starkly, and criticism mounted.[6]

These attacks led to the evolution of the summer normals, which were superior to the institutes in that they were longer, usually 6 weeks or more, offered organized courses rather than scattered lectures, and granted degree and certification credits. It was a natural and final step for these summer terms to be officially adopted by the State normal schools whose faculties and facilities they had frequently used from the outset.[7]

Although the institute and the normal were probably the most significant precursors of the modern summer sessions, private summer sessions of several varieties were also important. The earliest of these was the private, single-subject school, initially in science. Biology and geology professors found that summer offered opportunity for field instruction in areas too remote to be reached during the college session. Louis Agassiz of the Harvard faculty took geology students to the Great Lakes area for summer field work as early as 1848. This first example of instruction for persons other than teachers came nearly a decade after the Massachusetts State Normal School's initial session for teachers in 1839. It is significant to note that Harvard had no connection with this tour and was not to present official summer courses of instruction until 1871 which, in turn, preceded the establishment of its graduate department by a year.

Agassiz again illustrated the extra-institutional status of early summer study in 1873 when John Anderson, a wealthy tobacco merchant of New York, offered his island of Penikese at the mouth of Buzzard's Bay and an endowment of $50,000 to assist Agassiz in financing a summer seashore laboratory where teachers could spend their vacations in the study of nature. This famous Anderson School, with Agassiz as its director and Burt G. Wilder of Cornell University, Arnold Guyot of Princeton University, and Alpheus S. Packard of Brown University as his assistants, opened in July 1873, with an enrollment of 28 men and 16 women. Imitation followed its success in such institutions as the Concord Summer School of Philosophy and Literature, Professor Sauveur's pioneer Summer School of Languages, the School of Applied Ethics at Plymouth, Martha's Vineyard Summer Institute, and the National Summer School of Methods at Glens Falls, New York, to mention only some of the more famous.[8] These private institutions were usually located in or near resort areas.

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[4] *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1885–86,* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1887, p. 309; Ruediger, op. cit., p. 10.

[5] Judd, op. cit., p. 25. Some critical descriptions of institute programs are given in Smart, op. cit., pp. 19–22, 26–33, 71–206, and in *Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1867–68,* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1868, p. 655–56.

[6] The institute was criticized for being too short and superficial and often financed at the expense of the student. It did not meet the need for courses and credits demanded for certification and promotion. *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1894–95,* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1896, p. 1483; Homer H. Seerley, "Practical Value of the Institute System," *Educational Review,* November 1908, p. 356–57, 359; Ruediger, op. cit., p. 30–32; Stecklein, op. cit., p. 8.

[7] Summer normals appeared about 1875. Judd notes, p. 27, that 94 of the 200 summer normals held in 1917 were on State normal school campuses. See also *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1898–99,* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1900, II, p. 1842; "The Summer Normals," *The Virginia Journal of Education,* I, No. 1, October 1907, p. 27–31; *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year Ending June 30, 1913,* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1914, I, p. 545; Ruediger, op. cit., p. 44–50; Stecklein, op. cit., p. 8–9.

Another type of private school was directly related to the modern summer session. On many campuses, faculty members banded together in cooperative sessions, offering to teach all who could pay to learn. Courses were offered to meet student demand, administration was haphazard or nonexistent, and the receipts were equitably divided among the instructors. The colleges permitted the use of their facilities and some accepted summer credits toward degrees. In early years, they did not participate in the finances of such enterprises, fearing losses from transitory and expensive experiments. When such sessions proved their economic viability, they were frequently absorbed by the institution as an official summer school.[9]

Another forerunner of the summer session was that versatile instrument of popular education, the Chautauqua movement which, perhaps more than any of the other antecedents, illustrates a general characteristic, that is, summer sessions were often the product of dedicated leaders who worked apart from formal institutions of higher education, although steeped in the same traditions and scholarship.

The American Lyceum, sometimes regarded as the forerunner of Chautauqua, was established in 1826 by Josiah Holbrook, a graduate of Yale University. For nearly two generations, it organized groups throughout the country to read about and discuss natural science, history, and community problems. Chautauqua, in turn, grew from the lyceum concept under the leadership of several dedicated persons whose interests and activities spanned the gap between popular education and institutionalized higher education. Lewis Miller, a businessman and trustee of Chautauqua who owned the grounds upon which its assembly met, later served on the board of trustees of Mount Union College, Alliance, Ohio, where he successfully instituted a summer session to enable students to make up the time which they lost while harvesting crops. His sister-in-law, Mrs. Emily Huntington Miller, also associated with Chautauqua's beginnings, later became Dean of Women at Northwestern University. William Rainey Harper, who joined Chautauqua in 1883, became famous as the president of the University of Chicago and the founder of its summer session, then unique in being the fourth quarter of an integrated, all-year program.

The driving impetus behind the creation of Chautauqua was Bishop John H. Vincent. His son, George E. Vincent, who joined in his father's work, later became president of the University of Minnesota where he invigorated and organized the jumbled summer session terms. Bishop Vincent, unlike many of his contemporaries, admired the normal institutes for public school teachers. He inaugurated the "Chautauqua Assembly" in 1874 as a normal school for Sunday school teachers, and it soon proliferated into an amazing variety of educational activities. Among them were the College of Liberal Arts, with a 6-week session, and a "Teachers' Retreat." The wide-ranging curriculum of the college was taught by competent academicians, but its tone was popular rather than erudite, and recreation had a major role in the program.[10] Despite this, it contributed to the evolution of summer session in leading to the founding of some schools and in overcoming the persistent belief that climatic conditions of that season precluded effective learning.[11]

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[8] For complete discussions of Agassiz' enterprises see: Elizabeth C. Agassiz, *Louis Agassiz: His Life and Correspondence,* Boston, 1886, II, p. 462–63; Harvard University, *Historical Register of Harvard University 1636–1936,* Cambridge, Mass., 1937, p. 2; and *Louis Agassiz as a Teacher,* New York, 1945, p. 29. Brief accounts of the single-subject school are found in W. W. Willoughby, "History of the Summer Schools in the United States," *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1891–1892,* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1896, II, p. 893–959; *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1894–95,* II, p. 1484–85; George E. Vincent, *Summer Schools and University Extension,* Albany, New York, 1904, p. 3–5; Judd, op. cit., p. 9–24; Dickerman, op. cit., p. 1–2.

[9] Little is known about these informal sessions except for a few individual colleges. As late as 1912, 86 of the 369 sessions listed as independent were probably of this type. *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year Ending June 30, 1903,* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1913, II, p. 1504–05; *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year Ending June 30, 1912,* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1913, II, p. 463–79; Philip A. Bruce, *History of the University of Virginia 1819–1919,* New York, 1922, V, p. 211–13; Orrin L. Elliott, *Stanford University: The First Twenty-Five Years,* Stanford University, Palo Alto, Calif., 1937, p. 123–124; Charlie B. Hersey, *Colorado College 1874–1949,* Colorado Springs, Colo., 1952, p. 267–68; Miller, op. cit., p. 3–8.

[10] For information on Chautauqua and its founder, see *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1894–95,* I, op. cit., p. 978–1041; Rebecca Richmond, *Chautauqua: An American Place,* New York, 1943, especially p. 20, 37, 49, 55–56. Briefer accounts in Vincent, Willoughby, op. cit., p. 921–45, and Judd, op. cit., p. 21–23.

Criticisms of Early Programs

A persistent criticism of many early sessions was that their brevity invited superficiality. This brevity was caused by necessity. States and districts which required teachers to attend summer training ignored its constriction apparently in the conviction that a short session was better than none.

The financial practices of many summer sessions have been denounced as the root of their major shortcomings. Colleges which were pressed for funds generally insisted that summer schools be self-supporting.[12] Instruction, the principal expense, carried the burden of economizing. The faculty had to contribute their services or accept miserable salaries and contingency clauses by which even these were canceled if classes failed to reach stipulated enrollments. Perhaps for this reason, the faculties of summer sessions were frequently inferior in training to those of regular terms.[13] Also, students were often assessed unusually heavy tuition and fee charges in the summer.

These practices, which set summer schools apart from the regular sessions of their colleges and in a position of inferiority, violated the American principle that society must subsidize the education of its youth by public appropriation or private donation. Subsidiary mischiefs sprouted from this central evil. Teachers, anxious to secure minimum acceptable enrollments, eagerly solicited students by unprofessional means. Colleges also competed for customers by lowering admissions standards[14] and by promotional literature which extolled the recreation program. Academically dubious courses were introduced, disguised as educational experimentation.

Thus the summer school often violated the traditions of higher education, exploited instructor and student, and impaired the standards and purposes of the colleges. Insistence on self-sufficiency was largely responsible for these abuses, but haphazard and lax administration also contributed, a shortcoming inherited from earlier private and independent sessions.[15]

This partial catalog of iniquities indicates that the critics of summer sessions were not overemphasizing the insignificant but had grounds for denunciation. As summer schools were integrated into reputable colleges and universities, serious efforts were made to overcome their flaws. It should also be repeated that there were always a considerable number of sessions where the above criticisms would find no application.

Rise of the "True" Summer Session

In tracing the development of the "true" summer session, paucity of information again prevents a detailed account. Historians do agree that Harvard held the first such school, followed closely by other universities, including Virginia and North Carolina. Of the 124 summer schools listed in 1900, 13 were established in the 1870's, 29 in the 1880's, and the remainder in the last decade of the century.[16]

The early years of the 20th century witnessed continuous increases in the number of sessions.

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[11] *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1890–91*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1894, p. 850. The history and characteristics of Chautauqua are described in *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1894–95*, I, op. cit., p. 978–1041 and, more briefly, in Vincent, op. cit., p. 4; Willoughby, op. cit., p. 921–45; and Judd, op. cit., p. 21–23. For an example of the influence of Chautauqua on proposals to establish a summer school see S. Willis Rudy, *The College of the City of New York: A History 1847–1947*, New York, 1949, p. 317–18.

[12] Egbert, op. cit., p. 8; Daniel W. Hollis, *University of South Carolina*, Columbia, S.C., 1956, II, p. 280; J. L. Rosenberger, *Rochester: The Making of a University*, Rochester, N.Y., 1927, p. 249–50; Stecklein, op. cit., p. 18.

[13] Judd, op. cit., p. 68–74, notes that this was still generally true in 1916.

[14] See, for example, Joseph E. Avent, "Report on Summer Sessions in State Teachers' Colleges," National Education Association, *Addresses and Proceedings of the Sixty-Second Annual Meeting 1924*, Washington, 1924, p. 385.

[15] Typical criticisms of early summer sessions are found in *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1894–95*, op cit. II p. 1483–84; Avent, op. cit., p. 384–85; Dickerman, op. cit., p. 8–10; and Stecklein, op cit., p. 16–17.

[16] *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year 1894–95*, op. cit., II, p. 1484; Vincent, op. cit., p. 4–8; Stecklein, op. cit., p. 11–12. For descriptions of the rise and development of individual college sessions, see Waterman T. Hewett, *Cornell University: A History*, New York, 1905, II, p. 393–400; William W. Ferrier, *Origin and Development of the University of California*, Berkeley, Calif., 1930, p. 450–52; Henry M. Bullock, *A History of Emory University*, Nashville, Tenn., 1936, p. 167–68; W. F. Galpin, *Syracuse University: The Pioneer Days*, Syracuse, N.Y., 1953, p. 53. It is very likely Harvard University also conducted the first summer school for foreign teachers when, in July 1900, it organized a special program of studies and arranged suitable living accommodations for a group of 1,300 Cuban teachers who were sent to Boston on U.S. Government transports soon after the conclusion of the Spanish-American War, as described by Walter Crosby Eels, in "An Episode in International Education. The Cuban Expedition to the United States," *The Journal of Higher Education*, Columbus Ohio: The Ohio State University Press, vol. 34, No. 2, February 1963, p. 67–72.

In 1911 when the Office of Education began to publish summer school statistics in a periodic and organized manner, the picture becomes more sharply defined. The Commissioner of Education reported that 477 of the more than 500 summer schools held in 1911 had submitted information. They had enrolled 118,307 students, taught by 8,049 faculty members in courses for which 180 gave degree credits. The cost per student was estimated at $18, far less than the comparable figure for regular sessions. These data were continuing evidence of inferior status.[17] By 1916, 734 summer schools were attended by 298,219 students and instructed by 17,600 faculty members.[18]

World War I brought little pause in the trend of growth. After pruning its list of the sessions which were nonacademic in character, the Office of Education reported that 480 summer schools in 1918 had enrolled 160,422 students. Indeed, a number of colleges inaugurated sessions during the war years.[19]

Expansion continued through the 1920's. From 1921 to 1931, enrollments increased from 220,311 to 414,260. In the latter year, 707 summer schools were in operation, including 108 junior colleges, relatively a newcomer to the field of summer education.[20]

The depression of the 1930's posed a potential threat to the summer session. Financial stringency curtailed college activities regarded as peripheral, a category into which summer school had previously fallen. This decade, therefore, tested both the capacity of the summer session to survive and its significance in the eyes of college administrators. The depression bottomed in 1933. In that year, 715 of the 1,418 institutions of higher education held summer sessions, as compared to 707 of 1,460 in 1931, both an absolute and a proportional increase. The 715 sessions included 454 held at colleges and universities, 137 at teachers' colleges, 97 at junior colleges, and 27 at normal schools.[21]

Enrollments briefly dropped from 414,260 in 1931 to 303,754 in 1933, then rebounded to 370,026 in 1935 and 429,864 in the 869 sessions held in 1937.[22] But summer sessions did not escape the depression unscathed. For some of them, regression to financial self-sufficiency was the price of survival.[23]

Crisis succeeded crisis in mounting crescendo as World War II followed the depression. Though its impact was far greater than that of World War I, education had a powerful ally in the Federal Government which was determined to preserve the institutions of cultural transmission. Summer school attendance actually increased during the war, following an initial decline from 456,679 in 1939 to 426,849 in 1941. In 1943, it rose to 479,326 and yet again to 515,602 in 1945, in large part due to military programs on campus.[24]

Survival and growth during the successive tempests of depression and war testify to the durability of the summer school. The years immediately following the war brought growth at a breathless pace. Enrollment soared from 515,602 in 1945 to an incredible 955,429 in 1947, an increase of 85.3 percent. A transient decline to

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[17] *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year Ending June 30, 1911*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1912, II, p. 1129–60.

[18] *Biennial Survey of Education, 1916–1918*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1921, IV, ch. 5, p. 509–48.

[19] The Office ceased to send questionnaires to 231 schools considered nonacademic. Ibid. See also Bureau of Education, *Statistics of Teachers' Colleges and Normal Schools, 1919–1920*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1922, Bulletins, 1922, No. 8, p. 33–34, 38–42, 62–63; North Carolina, Department of Public Instruction, *A Comparative Study of Summer Schools for Teachers Held in North Carolina, 1921*, Raleigh, N.C., n.d., p. 5. For sessions established during the war, William E. Eisenberg, *The First Hundred Years: Roanoke College 1842–1942*, Salem, Va., 1942, p. 249; S. Willis Rudy, *The College of the City of New York: A History 1847–1947*, New York, 1949, p. 351. American Council on Education Studies, Series I, No. 6, *Higher Education and the War*, Washington, D.C., 1942, p. 16–17.

[20] Statistics from *Biennial Survey of Education 1930–32*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1935, ch. 3, p. 123–93, and *Biennial Survey of Education 1948–50*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1954, p. 38.

[21] Normal schools had declined from 325 in 1910 to 202 in 1928, while State teachers colleges increased from 46 to 137 in the same period. *Biennial Survey of Education 1926–28*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1930, p. 306.

[22] Statistics from *Biennial Survey of Education 1932–34*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1937, ch. 4, p. 120–99, and *Biennial Survey of Education 1936–38*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1942, ch. 1, p. 29, and ch. 4, p. 132–79.

[23] Roy Gittinger, *The University of Oklahoma 1892–1942*, Norman, Oklahoma, 1942, p. 149; Daniel W. Hollis, *University of South Carolina*, II, *College to University*, Columbia, South Carolina, 1956, p. 329.

[24] 102,992 military personnel and contract students attended summer session in 1943. A number of colleges initiated sessions to permit acceleration during the war. *Biennial Survey of Education 1942–44*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1949, p. 15–16; *Biennial Survey of Education 1948–50*, 38; Nils Y. Wessel, "A Poll on Summer Study," *Journal of Higher Education*, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University Press, vol. 14, No. 3, March 1943, p. 129; American Council on Education Studies, Series I, No. 16, *Higher Education and the War*, Washington, D.C., 1942, p. 155–56.

943,021 in 1949 and 796,970 in 1953 merely accentuated a new climb to dizzier heights in 1955 when 1,047,068 attended summer sessions.[25] It is difficult to disagree with the author of a recent article that summer school has, indeed, "come of age." [26]

Steady growth.—The statistics above synthesize into the most significant trend of the summer session in this century—its steady growth in the number of students and schools. There have been multiple causes for this expansion. Some of the most obvious are the population increase from 92 million in 1910 to 152 million in 1950, and the increase of institutions of higher education from 951 in 1909–10 to 1,858 in 1955–56. There was a simultaneous, and much greater, expansion in the incidence of college attendance. In 1910, 5.12 percent of college-age youth were enrolled in a college or university; by 1955–56, the proportion had risen to 30.92 percent.[27] As these institutions grew in number and size, their summer schools did likewise.

Special conditions contributed to the increase of summer sessions. During the 1920's significant and nationwide increases in educational prerequisites for teaching accompanied the transfer of certification powers from local to central authorities in 36 States.[28] A great pilgrimage of inservice teachers to summer sessions was the predictable result.

Increased summer enrollments in the 1930's were, curiously, partly the result of an oversupply of teachers. From 1932 to 1934, the actual number of elementary and secondary teaching posts declined by 27,138, though the maintenance of the teacher-pupil ratio of 1930 would have necessitated the creation of 54,988 new positions. Contention for the available jobs was spirited, and school boards naturally bought as much training as they could for the salary offered. Alert teachers improved their competitive situations by additional summer schoolwork.[29]

Ratio of men and women.—Statistics also permit some analysis of the composition of the student body and the purposes and content of the summer school curriculum. From the earliest days, women dominated enrollments in a ratio of about 2 to 1, constituting, typically, 68.6 percent of attendance in 1921 and 68.8 percent in 1925.[30] Teachers were apparently approximately the same proportion. In the summers of 1929 through 1931, over half of the enrollees were taking at least one course in education.[31] A special study in 1931 revealed that the median percents of teachers in summer student bodies were 56.5 for universities, 69 for colleges, and 86 for teachers colleges; in 1941, prospective teachers, teachers, and administrators constituted 65.8 percent of the student body in 335 institutions.[32] The proportion of men in summer attendance slowly increased during the 1920's and 1930's [33] until World War II radically altered both the size and composition of the student body by reversing the percentage of men and women. In 1947 and 1949, men constituted 66.1 percent and 63.1 percent, respectively, of the enrollment. Dropping sharply to 52.2 in 1953, male attendance again increased to 54.6 percent in 1955.[34] These men were largely regular-year students continuing into summer for acceleration, making that session practically a continuation of the academic year.[35]

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[25] *Biennial Survey of Education 1954–56,* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1958, ch. 4, sec. I, p. 130. There is evidence that wartime acceleration brought many to summer school who would not normally have attended and that their favorable impressions received then produced demands which led to increasing the number and length of postwar terms. Wessel, 131; T. A. Bancroft and W. D. Baughman, "Results of a Study of the Duration and Division of the College and University Summer School Term," *Peabody Journal of Education,* vol. 25, No. 2, September 1947, p. 89–92.

[26] Clarence A. Schoenfeld, "The Summer Session Comes of Age," *School and Society,* New York: Society for the Advancement of Education, Inc., vol. 89, No. 2194, summer 1961, p. 268–70.

[27] Statistics from *Biennial Survey of Education 1954–56,* op. cit., ch. 4, sec. I, p. 1–7.

[28] *Biennial Survey of Education, 1924–26,* op. cit., p. 350–63, 375–77; *Biennial Survey of Education 1926–28,* op. cit., p. 316–17.

[29] The over-supply of teachers was apparent in certain regions and fields in the 1920's. *Biennial Survey of Education 1934–36,* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1938, II, ch. 6, p. 19–27; *School and Society,* New York: Society for the Advancement of Education, Inc., vol. 32, No. 832, Dec. 6, 1930, p. 756; F. C. Ensign, "The Summer Session and the Teacher," *Midland Schools,* Des Moines, Iowa: Iowa State Education Assoc., vol. 48, No. 8, April 1934, p. 231, 240.

[30] *Biennial Survey of Education 1920–22,* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1925, II, p. 313, 462; *Biennial Survey of Education 1924–26,* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1928, p. 815, 981, 987.

[31] Not all women students were teachers, nor all teachers attending summer school women, but the statistics for the two were related and close. Judd, 79; *The Journal of the National Education Association,* Washington, D.C.: National Education Association of the United States, vol. XX, No. 8, November 1931, p. 298; *School and Society,* vol. XXXII, No. 832, Dec. 6, 1930, p. 756.

[32] Frank K. Foster, "Summer Sessions for Teachers," *National Survey of the Education of Teachers,* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1933, III, p. 415. Figures for 1940 are from page 168 of an unpublished survey of summer schools in the files of the Office of Education. This study (henceforth cited as *Summer Sessions*) and that by Foster contain almost the only statistics on certain national trends in the 1930's and 1940's and will be frequently cited herein.

[33] *Biennial Survey of Education 1930–32,* ch. 3, p. 577. *Summer Sessions,* op. cit., p. 56, attributes the declining proportion of women students to the disappearance of the normal school.

[34] *Biennial Survey of Education 1952–54,* Washington: 1956, ch. 4, sec. I, p. 32; *Biennial Survey of Education 1954–56,* ch. 4, sec. I, p. 45.

Objectives.—The objectives of the summer session are a result of the composition of the student body, and tend to shift with it. As already noted, early schools were primarily for teachers. When regular session students began to attend in increasing numbers, goals changed. In 1931, a survey of summer sessions in 333 institutions revealed four primary purposes: 223 sought to help inservice teachers secure baccalaureate degrees; 176 provided a continuation of the regular session; 174 offered courses for the extension of certification; and 125 mentioned acceleration as a primary purpose. It was apparent that the summer session was serving two masters, and that the regular-year student was of major importance.[36]

Curricular offerings reflected these objectives. After 1900, there was a steady increase in specialized subject and degree-credit courses, and graduate work also became important. In 1931, Foster notes that the number of classes in such fields as biology, English, history, and virtually all areas of graduate study were increasing, and the same trends appeared in the study of 1940.[37]

Proving ground for experimentation.—Another vigorous and historic tendency was a relatively uninhibited experimentation in new ideas and techniques in summer sessions. Studies of the 1930's and 1940's reveal a multiplicity of unusual courses calculated to attract students—foreign and domestic tours, natural science camps, foreign language schools, workshops, and "practical" courses on such subjects as coal mining merely begin the list.[38] Such offerings were lineal descendants of earlier summer sessions and attracted the opposition of many orthodox academicians who regarded them as superficial, if not downright frivolous.

Administration.—In describing the physiology of the internal structure and functioning of summer sessions, scattered studies of individual institutions rather than statistics must be the main reliance. The resulting story is incomplete. It is evident, however, that there was a change during the past half century from lax and casual governance to coherent administration. When a college initiated, or assumed, a summer school as part of its program, it was likely to center direction in an administrator, often with a faculty advisory committee, to badger its governing board for an appropriation, to establish a salary schedule, to formulate a code of regulations, and to correlate the summer work in some degree with the regular curriculum. The Avent study of 1924 and the surveys of 1931 and 1940 showed that summer sessions were increasingly coming under the regular policy-forming bodies of their institutions.[39]

Financial practices.—The story of an evolving fiscal policy is even less visible in the mists of obscurity. As already noted, college governing boards, reluctant to inaugurate or assume summer sessions which might incur deficits, often insisted that they must be self-supporting, a philosophy at variance with that of the regular year and productive of dubious financial practices. Teachers were frequently paid on the basis of class attendance, with the "sudden death" proviso that their courses must achieve a given minimum enrollment. Salary scales, where established, were often proportionately less than for the equivalent work in the regular year.

The Foster survey of summer sessions in 1931 gives the first general picture of financial practices. Of the 271 colleges and universities which gave information on this topic, 160 expected their summer schools to be self-supporting, a hope obviously often balked for 162 also reported a deficit. Most of the 100 which produced a profit added it to the general fund instead of ploughing it back into summer school development.[40] The 1940 survey, covering 500 sessions, showed that the most common method of salary determination was to use the regular monthly remuneration—often sharply discounted—as the basis for prorata computation of summer payments. The next three devices, in descending order of frequency, were to pay one-sixth, one-seventh, or one-eighth of the regular stipend. One or another of these four methods was employed in about 80 percent of the summer sessions.[41]

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[35] Stecklein, op. cit., p. 42–43, that 59 percent of the students in the summer session of 1956 at the University of Minnesota were enrolled during the regular session.

[36] Foster, op. cit., p. 405. Many colleges gave more than one basic purpose. Avent notes that further education of inservice teachers and progress towards original certification or renewal were the major purposes of summer sessions at teachers colleges in the mid–1920's, p. 387–88. See also *Summer Sessions*, op. cit., p. 76–77.

[37] Foster, op. cit., p. 425–27; *Summer Sessions*, op cit., p. 241–43; Avent, op. cit., p. 386, found the same trend towards identity of summer and regular sessions in the teachers colleges of the 1920's. For a brief, typical account of developments in an individual institution, see William W. Ferrier, *Origin and Development of the University of California*, Berkeley, Calif., 1930, p. 451–52.

[38] Egbert, op. cit., p. 13; Walter J. Greenleaf, "Summer School at Home and Abroad," *School Life*, vol. 16, No. 9, May 1931, p. 161–63; Ella B. Ratcliffe, *Summer Educational Opportunities*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1932, Office of Education, Pamphlet 27, p. 1–41; Foster, op. cit., p. 410; Harry S. Ganders, "Summer Session Criteria," *New York State Education*, vol. 21, No. 6, March 1934, 451; Burr W. Phillips, ed., *In-Service Growth of Social Studies Teachers*, Cambridge, Mass., 1939, Tenth Yearbook of The National Council for Social Studies, p. 74–91; Kenneth L. Heaton, William G. Camp, Paul Diderich, *Professional Education for Experienced Teachers: The Program of the Summer Workshop*, Chicago, 1940, p. 1–20.

[39] This synthesis based on Egbert, op. cit., p. 11; Avent, op. cit., p. 384; Foster, op. cit., p. 414–15, 437; *Summer Sessions*, op cit., p. 82; and accounts of individual institutions such as Stecklein, op. cit., p. 17–18; Ferrier, op. cit., p. 450–52; Curti and Carstensen, op. cit., p. 731–37; Miller, op. cit., p. 8–14.

Students also continued to carry a heavy load of summer session financial burdens. Of the 350 institutions which gave information on this topic in 1940, 54.3 percent reported that tuition and fees covered the costs of the session. In public colleges and universities as a whole, the student paid 81 cents of each dollar which his summer instruction cost; in private institutions, the figure was 89.8 cents.[42]

Summary

The information gathered in the present survey, focusing principally on the 1960 sessions, reaches back in some respects to the preceding decade. The foregoing sketch of history, contours, and trends has brought the story to the mid-point in the 20th century and may be briefly summarized as follows.

Summer sessions by this time had become an official segment of American higher education and had challenged recurrent crises with virility and growth. The summer session was originally a teacher-training institution, patronized principally by women. By 1950, it had metamorphosed into multi-purpose education for a varied clientele. Steadily, it had moved to closer approximation of the regular session from which it drew most of its faculty, courses, students, and policy-forming machinery.

But its identity with the regular session was not complete and it was hampered by vestigial remnants of its early heritage.[43] In many institutions, summer school still offered the most congenial climate for educational experiment, which abounded and flourished to the distaste of the orthodox. Financially, it still suffered from the expectation that the students must bear the costs of summer sessions and the faculty the risks. It was abbreviated in length as compared to the regular sessions in many colleges and universities. In brief, by mid-century, the summer school had progressed far in size, in prestige, and in organization, but it had not won complete acceptance as an equal and integral part of American higher education.

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[40] Foster, op. cit., p. 415–16. Figures for teachers colleges in Avent, op cit., p. 384–85.

[41] *Summer Sessions*, op. cit., p. 94–100. Students were not unaware of their burden of expense. Jairns J. Deisenroth, "A Summer-School Class Speaks Up," *American School Board Journal*, vol. C, No. 6, June 1940, p. 53; Archie F. Bowler, "Summer School: What Have We Done to Deserve This?" *The Clearing House*, vol. 22, No. 5, January 1948, p. 279–82.

[42] *Summer Sessions*, op. cit., p. 112–20.

[43] For typical examples of student reactions and criticisms, see Lois J. Denny, "The Adult Way—Not the Summer School Route," *The Clearing House*, vol. 22, No. 5, January 1948, p. 283–85; and Anonymous, "Frustration at Summer School," *The School Executive*, vol. 58, No. 12, August 1939, p. 14–15. Proponents pointed out the obvious opportunity to learn and the values of new environments and professional contacts in such articles as Harry Huffman, "Summer School Can Be Fun," *The Business Education World*, vol. 28, No. 9, May 1948, p. 534–37; and Ethel Jones, "I Went to Summer School and Gained," *The Clearing House*, vol. 24, No. 2, April 1950, p. 106–8. The summer school instructor's point of view is well expressed in Homer E. Woodbridge's "Confessions of a Summer School Teacher," *Journal of Higher Education*, vol. 8, No. 8, November 1942, p. 399–402, 456.

CHAPTER III

Characteristics of Summer Sessions, 1960

A MAJOR THEME of the preceding narrative was the almost uninterrupted increase in the number of summer sessions for many decades. That this trend has continued since mid-century is evident in table 2 which lists the number of institutions sponsoring summer sessions from 1951 through 1959.

Increase of Summer Sessions

There were 148 of the 1,369 institutions holding summer sessions in 1960 which did not respond to this item. For the 1,221 which did, there was an increase of 180 sessions during these years. Schools of theology and religion showed the greatest incidence of increase of 1959 over 1951 at 80.8 percent, followed by junior colleges at 53.9 percent. On the other hand, universities showed no increase, and liberal arts and teachers colleges had modest increments of 12.8 and 7.5 percents, respectively. By regions, the increase of 1959 over 1951 was greatest in the Alaska-Hawaii area at 42.8 percent, and in the Far West at 33.3 percent, and least in the Southwest, 8.2 percent, and the Southeast, 13.3 percent.

Table 2.—Number of institutions of higher education which held summer sessions in 1960, by type, by region, and by selected years in which previous summer sessions were held: Aggregate United States

Type of institution and region	Total institutions (1960)	Total answering	Institutions which held summer sessions in—								
			1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Aggregate United States	**1, 369**	**1, 221**	**1, 036**	**1, 051**	**1, 056**	**1, 086**	**1, 100**	**1, 125**	**1, 149**	**1, 177**	**1, 216**
Percentage increase over previous year	------	------	------	1. 45	0. 48	2. 84	1. 29	2. 27	2. 13	2. 44	3. 31
4-year institutions											
Universities	145	139	139	139	139	139	139	139	139	139	139
Liberal arts colleges	592	539	476	482	484	492	496	505	516	524	537
Independently organized professional schools:											
Teachers colleges	181	174	159	162	159	166	166	171	168	174	171
Technological schools	33	30	27	27	27	27	29	29	30	30	30
Theological and religious schools	62	47	26	28	28	34	33	35	38	40	47
Art schools	32	29	27	27	27	26	27	27	28	28	29
Other	36	26	22	23	24	25	25	26	26	26	26
2-year institutions											
Junior colleges	260	217	141	144	149	158	167	174	185	197	217
Technical institutes	14	12	11	11	11	11	10	11	11	11	12
Semiprofessional schools	14	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
Region											
New England	97	87	68	72	70	78	75	80	79	84	84
Mideast	244	220	183	184	185	191	196	203	205	213	219
Great Lakes	230	200	172	176	177	181	182	184	190	192	200
Plains	161	148	128	129	131	133	137	138	142	144	148
Southeast	318	282	249	251	252	255	258	265	271	274	282
Southwest	118	106	98	98	98	101	102	102	103	105	106
Rocky Mountains	35	31	29	29	29	29	29	29	31	31	31
Far West	156	137	102	104	106	109	111	114	118	124	136
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts [1]	10	10	7	8	8	9	10	10	10	10	10

[1] In text references, this region is abbreviated as Alaska-Hawaii throughout.

It is also evident from table 3 which shows plans for the years 1961–63 that growth in numbers will continue to be a tendency in summer sessions.

Table 3.—Institutions without a summer session in 1960 planning to start a summer session in 1961, 1962, or 1963: Aggregate United States

States and outlying parts	Institutions reporting no summer session in 1960	Institutions with plans to start summer session in—			Institutions not planning to start a summer session
		1961	1962	1963	
Aggregate United States	**599**	**41**	**30**	**6**	**522**
Alabama	6	----	----	----	6
Alaska	3	2	----	----	1
Arizona	2	----	----	----	2
Arkansas	3	1	----	----	2
California	33	2	4	1	26
Colorado	8	----	----	----	8
Connecticut	9	1	----	----	8
Delaware	2	----	----	----	2
District of Columbia	10	----	----	----	10
Florida	9	1	1	----	7
Georgia	16	2	3	----	11
Hawaii	1	----	----	----	1
Idaho	2	----	----	----	2
Illinois	33	2	2	----	29
Indiana	10	----	----	----	10
Iowa	21	1	3	----	17
Kansas	19	2	1	----	16
Kentucky	4	----	----	----	4
Louisiana	2	----	----	----	2
Maine	10	2	----	----	8
Maryland	17	2	1	----	14
Massachusetts	32	2	----	----	30
Michigan	15	1	----	----	14
Minnesota	18	1	1	----	16
Mississippi	12	----	----	----	12
Missouri	18	----	----	----	18
Montana	1	----	----	----	1
Nebraska	4	----	----	----	4
Nevada	------	----	----	----	------
New Hampshire	7	2	1	1	3
New Jersey	10	----	----	----	10
New Mexico	1	----	----	----	1
New York	50	7	4	2	37
North Carolina	15	1	2	----	12
North Dakota	3	----	----	----	3
Ohio	12	----	1	----	11
Oklahoma	13	----	----	1	12
Oregon	11	----	----	----	11
Pennsylvania	44	3	1	1	39
Rhode Island	1	----	----	----	1
South Carolina	6	----	2	----	4
South Dakota	------	----	----	----	------
Tennessee	11	2	1	----	8
Texas	12	----	1	----	11
Utah	2	----	----	----	2
Vermont	10	----	----	----	10
Virginia	24	1	----	----	23
Washington	8	1	1	----	6
West Virginia	2	----	----	----	2
Wisconsin	34	2	----	----	32
Wyoming	3	----	----	----	3
Outlying parts of the United States					
Canal Zone	------	----	----	----	------
Guam	------	----	----	----	------
Puerto Rico	------	----	----	----	------

NOTE: ---- indicates zero.

Future Plans for Summer Sessions

Even more striking evidence of this tendency to enlarge summer educational opportunities appeared in another set of figures. The questionnaire requested the directors of summer sessions to indicate whether they intended to expand, decrease, or discontinue existing sessions, and to describe their plans. Returns showed that 407 of the 1,369 institutions with summer sessions (29.7 percent) expected to augment them, only 28 (2.0 percent) were considering decreasing or discontinuing them, and 537 planned no definite changes. The remaining 397 gave incomplete answers, or none at all. The following tabulation summarizes both expansion and contraction plans.

		Number of institutions
Expansion plans		[1] 407
Expand course offerings		77
Add new term		30
Increase length of existing term or terms		20
Increase present session to fourth quarter		17
Increase present session to trimester		26
Airconditioning		54
New building		18
Plan to add new program		47
New graduate program	*15*	
New evening session	*4*	
Type unspecified	*8*	
Program for entering freshmen	*9*	

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[1] Detail adds to more than this total because some institutions had more than one proposal.

Expansion plans—Continued	*Number of institutions*
Program for superior high school students	3
Program of remedial and "repair" work	3
Program for acceleration	5
Contraction plans	[2]28
Discontinue summer session	7
Decrease course offerings	1
Discontinue a term or terms	4
Decrease length of a term or terms	7

Considered by type of institutions, the number which planned to expand ranged from 169 liberal arts colleges, 79 teachers colleges, 70 junior colleges, and 62 universities to 3 technical institutes, and 3 semiprofessional schools. In terms of relative frequency, however, liberal arts colleges at 28.6 percent were behind universities, 42.8 percent of which intended to expand their summer sessions, and also somewhat above junior colleges with 26.9 percent and independent technical schools at 24.2 percent. Geographic regions also showed considerable variations in planning expansion: New England led the way with 38 of 97 institutions (39.2 percent), followed by the Mideast with 84 of 244 colleges and universities (34.4 percent), and the Rocky Mountain area with 12 of 35 (34.3 percent). The lowest incidence occurred in Alaska-Hawaii with only 2 of 10 institutions proposing additions, and in the Southwest with 27 of 118 (22.9 percent). The number of colleges and universities which intended to decrease or discontinue summer sessions was so insignificant that type and area differentials were minute and meaningless.

As already noted, directors were also asked to describe contemplated changes at their colleges and universities. Responses to this request were less frequent; 279 of the 407 institutions which intended to increase summer sessions detailed their plans, as did 19 of the 28 proposing to decrease or discontinue. Types and purposes of expansion were varied: 77 of the 279 reported that they intended a systematic increase in course offerings; 28 proposed to inaugurate new curriculums; 20 would lengthen one or more of their existing terms; 30 would add at least one more term; and 15 would offer more workshops and institutes, both credit and noncredit.

One of the most significant aspects of planned expansion is its relationship to the pending problem of accommodating vastly increasing enrollments. Nearly all types of summer program enlargement will incidentally and in some degree ease the pressures of this problem, while some are more specifically designed to do so. The interest shown in the latter types of plan, as revealed by responses to the 1960 summer session questionnaire, was not as great as might be hoped or expected. Seventeen colleges noted that they hoped to expand their present sessions into full and equal fourth quarters, while 26 were considering a summer trimester. It should be stressed that, in most instances, the trimester or fourth quarter and the traditional summer session are not mutually exclusive, the latter must be maintained for teachers and others whose limitations of available time preclude participation in a trimester or fourth quarter.

Enrollment presents a problem within a problem. In most institutions of higher education, greatly increased entering freshmen classes have made the fall semester or quarter a nightmare of overcrowding. Academic or financial attrition reduces these pressures to more manageable proportions by the second term. The summer session might be a device to level out enrollments by providing an alternative entering date for freshmen. In this proposal, gain must be weighed against loss, for the solution of one problem might create new ones. A summer program of basic courses would have to be offered which, in turn, would necessitate the presentation of second term offerings in the fall for freshmen returning from the summer session. These are formidable obstacles, and only nine colleges indicated that they intended to establish an entering freshman program in summer session and to make definite efforts to recruit for it.

Expansion of program implies expansion of facilities and faculty. Few colleges mentioned plans for hiring new staff members, but this may be assumed. Eighteen institutions noted that their planned increase was related to new buildings—classroom, library, and dormitory. Another development offers great promise. In the past, climate has been an important restraint on summer sessions; students frequently complain that heat lowers academic efficiency. Responses from 54 colleges and universities which correlated their summer school expansion with newly air-conditioned buildings indicate that this deterrent is decreasing. Thirty-two of these institutions were located in the southern and border States and nearly all of the rest in the plains and lower midwestern States. Further decreases in the costs or increases in the adaptability of air-conditioning could produce more summer session expansion.

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[2] Detail adds to less than this total because some institutions did not give purpose of plan.

The analysis of the 28 summer sessions which would diminish or disappear was a short story. Seven colleges reported that the 1960 session would be their last. Typically, insufficient enrollment was the reason given, though one institution stated that it was merging with another which offered summer work. Of the remaining 21, 1 will sharply reduce the number of courses, 7 proposed to decrease the length of one or more terms, and 4 said they would reduce the number of terms. Again, enrollment was commonly the explanation. Nine offered no reason for discontinuing summer sessions.

Curriculums

The high incidence of institutions which reported in 1960 that they planned to expand their summer sessions is the latest affirmation of a long, historic trend. Summer sessions have constantly widened the scope of their purposes and offerings and thereby attracted new categories of students to supplement the inservice teachers and teacher-candidates who once constituted most, or nearly all, of their clientele. Table 4 shows the variety of subject fields included in the 1960 sessions. For example, 81 percent of the institutions presented courses in the social sciences, 80 percent in English and journalism, 76 percent in education, and 70 percent in mathematical subjects.[3] Further analysis shows that 89.8 percent of the 1960 summer sessions offered undergraduate instruction, 37.5 percent had graduate courses, and 26.4 percent presented non-degree-credit workshops and institutes.

Table 4.—Number of institutions offering specified subject fields, by percent of all higher education institutions and by percent of the institutions with summer sessions: Aggregate United States, 1960

Subject fields	Number of institutions offering specified subject fields	Institutions in col. 1 as percent of all 2,046 higher education institutions	Institutions in col. 1 as percent of the 1,369 institutions which held summer sessions in 1960
	1	2	3
Social sciences	1, 113	54. 4	81. 3
English and journalism	1, 092	53. 4	79. 8
Education	1, 035	50. 6	75. 6
Mathematical subjects	953	46. 6	69. 6
Fine and applied arts	913	44. 6	66. 7
Biological sciences	898	43. 9	65. 6
Physical sciences	879	43. 0	64. 2
Psychology	877	42. 9	64. 1
Foreign languages and literature	704	34. 4	51. 4
Business and commerce	674	32. 9	49. 2
Philosophy	612	29. 9	44. 7
Religion	509	24. 9	37. 2
Geography	436	21. 3	31. 9
Library science	291	14. 2	21. 3
Engineering	261	12. 8	19. 1
Home economics	256	12. 5	18. 7
Health professions	237	11. 6	17. 3
Agriculture	117	5. 7	8. 6
Law	116	5. 7	8. 5
Trade and industrial training	74	3. 6	5. 4
Architecture	66	3. 2	4. 8
Forestry	51	2. 5	3. 7

Teachers and Teacher-Candidates

The composition of the summer session curriculum is more easily ascertained than the composition of its heterogeneous student body. No attempt was made to obtain a complete and refined analysis of enrollees, nor to determine the number of regular year students who also attended summer sessions. Such information would be of considerable value and might well constitute the focus of additional studies later. However, the questionnaire did ascertain that 343,778 women and 417,378 men were enrolled in degree programs in the main terms of the 1960 summer sessions.

Directors were asked to estimate the percentage of the total enrollment which consisted of persons engaged in or preparing for classroom teaching at the primary and secondary school levels. Though the resulting assessments are liable to a considerable error, they clearly show that teachers and prospective teachers still furnish a substantial core of the summer school population. Data derived from table 5 show that, of the 166 teachers colleges which responded to this question, 93 percent indicated that teachers and teacher-candidates were more than half of their 1960 summer enrollments, and 72 percent said that they were more than three-quarters of the student body. The proportions of other types of colleges which estimated that teachers and teacher-candidates were over half their 1960 summer enrollments were as follows: Liberal arts colleges, 58 percent; art schools, 26 percent; junior colleges, 23 percent; and universities, 15 percent. Theological, technical, and semiprofessional schools indicated that the percentages of teachers among their clients were negligible.

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[3] A complete listing of the subject fields offered in nearly all of the institutions of higher education which had summer sessions in 1960 has been published separately under the title, *Summer Session Offerings in Institutions of Higher Education, 1960: A Directory*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1962, OE–56009.

Table 5.—Number of institutions by type and region, by land-grant institutions, and by estimated percent of students engaged in or preparing to teach: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution and region	Total institutions	Total answering	Number of institutions by estimated percent of students engaged in or preparing to teach				
			None	1 to 25 percent	26 to 50 percent	51 to 75 percent	76 to 100 percent
Aggregate United States	**1, 369**	**1, 138**	**101**	**293**	**214**	**200**	**330**
4-year institutions							
Universities	145	126	1	49	57	14	5
Liberal arts colleges	592	521	13	93	113	131	171
Independently organized professional schools:							
Teachers colleges	181	166	--------	2	9	35	120
Technological schools	33	26	16	8	2	--------	--------
Theological and religious schools	62	43	20	15	6	2	--------
Art schools	32	23	3	12	2	2	4
Other	36	22	16	3	1	1	1
2-year institutions							
Junior colleges	260	194	17	109	24	15	29
Technical institutes	14	9	7	2	--------	--------	--------
Semiprofessional schools	14	8	8	--------	--------	--------	--------
Region							
New England	97	82	13	19	13	6	31
Mideast	244	200	22	66	27	16	69
Great Lakes	230	190	26	38	34	35	57
Plains	161	144	4	18	28	33	61
Southeast	318	265	16	68	64	59	58
Southwest	118	101	4	41	21	21	14
Rocky Mountains	35	30	3	3	6	4	14
Far West	156	118	13	39	18	23	25
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	8	--------	1	3	3	1
Land-grant institutions	[1] 71	65	2	19	29	6	9

[1] This number is larger than the number of land-grant institutions as ordinarily defined because, in this report, some branches of land-grant institutions were counted as separate institutions.

In the United States as a whole, 47 percent of all responding institutions said that teachers, present and prospective, constituted 51 percent or more of their 1960 summer session enrollments. There were considerable regional variations in respect to this as indicated by the following tabulation: New England, 45 percent; Mideast, 43 percent; Great Lakes, 48 percent; Plains, 65 percent; Southeast, 44 percent; Southwest, 35 percent; Rocky Mountains, 60 percent; Far West, 41 percent; Alaska–Hawaii, 50 percent.

Both the preceding historical sketch and the discussion of summer session purposes stress the growing diversity of students, offerings, and goals. Teachers remain a significant proportion of summer enrollments, and many individual sessions would not have been held without their attendance. The change in their position has been a relative, not an absolute, decline in the summer session population as new categories of students have come in.

As already noted, no attempt was made to determine the composition of the summer student body beyond ascertaining the numbers of men and women, the percentage of teachers, and total enrollments in degree programs. Various data however, may permit further tentative and subjective analysis. The great variety of course offerings listed indicates an appeal to many categories of persons with educational needs. Though directors were not asked to compare summer-session and regular-year subject offerings, it is evident from the listings that the former measure up well and, in some respects, were more extensive. The courses in the summer of 1960 included a variety of seasonal, interdepartmental, and interdisciplinary programs, workshops, operas, and plays. In some institutions, numbers of the faculty used the summer session to experiment with new courses and activities which they intended to use, if successful, in the regular-year program. Workshops and institutes, with or without credit or certification, gave opportunity for professional growth to lawyers, teachers, dentists, doctors, and business executives, and provided instruction to serve the needs developed by an era of automation and space exploration. A number of colleges and universities stressed social and cultural activities, while some offered special instruction and early admission for talented students and college credit courses for superior high school students. Conversely, others admitted applicants academically ineligible for the regular year to summer session on a trial basis, or permitted fall and spring term students to make up subject deficiencies and failures.

Thus the composition of offerings and student bodies in the summer sessions of 1960 indicated some degree of dichotomy in philosophy and purpose. It was apparent that many colleges treated summer sessions as detached from the regular year, even though there was considerable identity with standard courses. The summer terms were shorter and were the occasion for the unusual educational services noted above. On the other hand, many institutions viewed the summer session as presently or potentially an integral and equal part of year-round education to accelerate the student's academic progress and to increase enrollment capacity. To turn away any of the increasing number of qualified students while allowing expensive physical facilities to remain idle was an insupportable contradiction. It was said of the officials of one such institution that "They consider the nine-month school year a relic of an agrarian society which the nation can no longer afford."[4]

Number and Length of Terms

Historically, American colleges and universities have used four calendar principles. In earlier years, Harvard adopted the four-term pattern of Oxford and Cambridge for a time,[5] and, from its founding, the University of Chicago employed the four-quarter plan. Aside from these and a few other unusual patterns, nearly all American institutions adhered to the two-term (semester) system or, less frequently, the three-term (quarter) calendar.[6]

This aspect of higher education attracted little attention until increasing enrollments have recently excited interest in modifying the calendar to provide for year-round education. The Chicago system of four quarters has had a steady growth, while the trimester, which usually involves three 15-week sessions, is less widely employed. The well-worn arguments in support of these plans need only brief listing here: they will increase the student capacity of colleges and universities, will utilize otherwise idle plant and equipment, and will permit the acceleration of baccalaureate programs from 4 years to 3.[7] The survey of 1960 revealed that, despite the general discussion of these plans, only 19 sessions held that summer were trimesters and 77 were fourth quarters. These totals in each category are confined to those institutions which held single terms of an appropriate length.

It would appear that American institutions of higher education are slow to adopt the trimester or fourth-quarter plans. This conclusion may be challenged by the adoptions of these calendars by a considerable number of colleges and universities since 1960. For example, the Florida State Board of Control has provided a trimester calendar for the State universities; the State Board of Presidents in Pennsylvania approved a plan, on a permissive basis, of four 12-week terms per year for the 14 State colleges; Nebraska State Teachers

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[4] *Progress Report on Year 'Round Education.* University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa. : vol. I, No. 2, p. 4.

[5] W. H. Cowley, *A Study of the Relative Merits of the Quarter and Semester Systems*, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1932, p. 4.

[6] Committee on the University Calendar of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, *The University Calendar*, Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1961, p. 5.

[7] Statements and arguments relative to the calendar are found in various publications such as *Progress Report on Year 'Round Education*, op. cit., the *Trimester* brochure of Nebraska State Teachers College at Wayne, and *The College Year*, published by Wheaton College.

College at Wayne has added the trimester to its "new developments" program of independent study and honors work; and Wisconsin State College at Oshkosh has also inaugurated the trimester. The last two institutions are essentially conducting their trimesters as pilot programs for their States. It is important to note that traditional summer sessions are not being displaced by the adoption of the new calendars, but are being continued to meet the needs of those who find it impossible to attend the longer terms.

Despite the impressive recent growth of the new calendar plans, the fact remains that most American colleges still offered the standard short summer session in 1960. The traditional 6-week main term remained the most popular, being reported by 580 of the 1,369 institutions (42.3 percent), followed by the 8-week term (213, 15.6 percent), and the 5-week term (187, 13.7 percent).[8] Universities, liberal arts, teachers, and junior colleges generally followed this sequence,[9] while semiprofessional and technical institutes favored the term of 10 or more weeks, and schools of religion and theology had terms of less than 5 weeks. (See table 6.)

Table 6.—Number and percent of institutions by type, by land-grant institutions, and by number of weeks in the main terms of the summer session: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution	Total institutions	Total answering	Number of weeks in main terms						
			1.0 to 4.9	5.0 to 5.9	6.0 to 6.9	7.0 to 7.9	8.0 to 8.9	9.0 to 9.9	10 or more
	NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS								
Aggregate United States	**1,369**	**1,291**	**120**	**187**	**580**	**29**	**213**	**67**	**95**
4-year institutions									
Universities	145	142	5	20	61	1	35	9	11
Liberal arts colleges	592	562	62	106	260	14	77	27	16
Independently organized professional schools:									
Teachers colleges	181	179	12	21	87	1	40	8	10
Technological schools	33	32	2	------	10	1	4	1	14
Theological and religious schools	62	54	22	10	10	------	5	4	3
Art schools	32	30	2	2	20	------	1	3	2
Other	36	28	2	1	6	3	3	3	10
2-year institutions									
Junior colleges	260	243	13	27	123	6	44	12	18
Technical institutes	14	12	------	------	1	3	------	------	8
Semiprofessional schools	14	9	------	------	2	------	4	------	3
Land-grant institutions	71	71	4	11	26	1	20	3	6
	PERCENT								
Aggregate United States	**100.0**	**94.3**	**8.7**	**13.7**	**42.3**	**2.2**	**15.6**	**4.9**	**6.9**
4-year institutions									
Universities	100.0	97.9	3.4	13.8	42.1	0.7	24.1	6.2	7.6
Liberal arts colleges	100.0	95.0	10.5	17.9	43.9	2.4	13.0	4.6	2.7
Independently organized professional schools:									
Teachers colleges	100.0	98.9	6.6	11.7	48.1	0.5	22.1	4.4	5.5
Technological schools	100.0	97.0	6.2	------	30.3	3.0	12.1	3.0	42.4
Theological and religious schools	100.0	87.1	35.5	16.1	16.1	------	8.1	6.5	4.8
Art schools	100.0	93.8	6.2	6.2	62.6	------	3.2	9.4	6.2
Other	100.0	77.8	5.6	2.8	16.7	8.3	8.3	8.3	27.8
2-year institutions									
Junior colleges	100.0	93.5	5.0	10.4	47.3	2.3	17.0	4.6	6.9
Technical institutes	100.0	85.7	------	------	7.1	21.4	------	------	57.2
Semiprofessional schools	100.0	64.3	------	------	14.3	------	28.6	------	21.4
Land-grant institutions	100.0	100.0	5.6	15.5	36.6	1.4	28.2	4.2	8.5

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[8] Terms with divided weeks are included under the lower whole number. For example, the figures for 8-week terms include all terms from 8.0 to 8.9 weeks in length.

[9] The principal exception to this statement is that the 5-week term was second in frequency and the 8-week term third for liberal arts colleges.

The number of terms also followed long-established practice. Nearly half of all summer sessions (680, 49.7 percent) were limited to one term, while an additional 445 institutions (32.5 percent) had two terms (table 7). Of the various types of institutions, only universities showed marked tendencies to hold three or more terms. Regionally, single-term institutions were prevalent except in the Southeast and Southwest, where the two-term pattern was more frequent. The data gathered on the 1960 sessions thus indicated that, to that time, there had been no concerted movement to increase the number or length of summer session terms.

Table 7.—Number and percent of institutions by type, by land-grant institutions, and by number of terms in summer sessions, by region: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution and region	Total institutions	Total answering	Number of terms				
			1	2	3	4	5 or more
	NUMBER						
Aggregate United States	**1, 369**	**1, 368**	**680**	**445**	**135**	**41**	**67**
4-year institutions							
Universities	145	145	39	44	24	10	28
Liberal arts colleges	592	592	266	233	59	14	20
Independently organized professional schools:							
Teachers colleges	181	181	77	54	26	12	12
Technological schools	33	33	20	9	2	1	1
Theological and religious schools	62	62	32	21	6	1	2
Art schools	32	32	28	2	1	-------	1
Other	36	36	20	7	5	2	2
2-year institutions							
Junior colleges	260	260	173	73	12	1	1
Technical institutes	14	13	12	1	-------	-------	-------
Semiprofessional schools	14	14	13	1	-------	-------	-------
Land-grant institutions	71	71	23	20	11	2	15
Region							
New England	97	97	70	18	4	2	3
Mideast	244	244	124	58	29	16	17
Great Lakes	230	229	136	50	22	7	14
Plains	161	161	74	54	20	3	10
Southeast	318	318	133	146	26	4	9
Southwest	118	118	32	70	13	1	2
Rocky Mountains	35	35	15	8	7	1	4
Far West	156	156	91	37	13	7	8
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	10	5	4	1	-------	-------
	PERCENT						
New England	100. 0	100. 0	72. 1	18. 6	4. 1	2. 1	3. 1
Mideast	100. 0	100. 0	50. 8	23. 7	11. 9	6. 6	7. 0
Great Lakes	100. 0	99. 6	59. 1	21. 8	9. 6	3. 0	6. 1
Plains	100. 0	100. 0	46. 0	33. 5	12. 4	1. 9	6. 2
Southeast	100. 0	100. 0	41. 8	45. 9	8. 2	1. 3	2. 8
Southwest	100. 0	100. 0	27. 1	59. 3	11. 0	0. 8	1. 7
Rocky Mountains	100. 0	100. 0	42. 8	22. 9	20. 0	2. 9	11. 4
Far West	100. 0	100. 0	58. 3	23. 7	8. 4	4. 5	5. 1
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	100. 0	100. 0	50. 0	40. 0	10. 0	-------	-------
Land-grant institutions	100. 0	100. 0	32. 4	28. 2	15. 5	2. 8	21. 1

The dates of these terms are of significance in revealing the degree to which summer sessions are sensitive to the needs of their constituents. A sample of 500 of the questionnaires disclosed 57 distinct first summer terms and a total of 45 second terms, intersessions and postsessions, as differentiated by opening and closing dates. These might be termed calendar spans. This amazing variety was of the greatest service to the prospective student who could have started a term within a day of almost any date he had chosen between May 30 and August 19, 1960.[10] By careful selection of beginning dates, he could have enrolled in a session of almost any desired extent from 2 to 17 weeks; for the term lengths of most frequent occurrence, he would have had a wide choice of beginning and terminal dates. A simple statement will synthesize this remarkable versatility and flexibility—almost anyone who seriously desired to attend a summer session in 1960 could have found a college and term to suit his purposes and his limitations of time.

The initial days of the 57 different first-term calendar spans ranged from April 24 (a trimester) to July 25, and concluding dates from July 10 to September 23 (also a trimester). Most intervening days marked the start or completion of at least one individual session. Numbers and variety decreased sharply for other terms. The sample revealed 28 calendar spans for second terms, with beginning dates from July 5 to August 8. Intersessions and postsessions were fewer in number. There were six calendar spans for the former, with starting dates ranging from May 9 to June 20. The 11 post-session calendar spans began as early as July 25 and as late as August 19.

Purposes of Summer Sessions

Summer sessions are the products of interaction between purposes and characteristics. To explore this important and subjective topic as thoroughly as possible, the 1960 questionnaire included a section on "Purpose of the Summer Session," and listed therein the following seven possibilities: Acceleration, rehabilitation, demonstration, exploration, enrichment, expansion, and others.[11] Directors were asked to indicate the purposes of their institutions by checking columns headed "much," "average," "slight," and "none" for each of the seven.

Responses to this question were another indication of the basic changes which summer sessions have undergone. The evidence suggests that a half century ago many sessions were almost single-mindedly dedicated to meeting the needs of teachers or teacher-candidates. As late as 1941, the unpublished study reported that "The professional improvement of teachers in service was named by 242 institutions (of 500 responding) as a distinctive purpose which they sought to fulfill through their summer session . . . This purpose was named approximately five times more frequently than 'provision of opportunity for regular-year students to make up back work' which came second in frequency and was named by 51 institutions." [12]

The present survey tells a different story. The frequency of "much" responses indicated that no single purpose had overwhelming primacy as in the past, and that directors considered acceleration, checked by 460 institutions (33.6 percent), as the most important function of the 1960 summer sessions. Expansion was second with 396 respondents (28.9 percent), while enrichment was third (275, 20.1 percent) followed by rehabilitation (236, 17.2 percent). Exploration (155, 11.3 percent) and demonstration (92, 6.7 percent) lagged far behind.[13] (See table 8.)

Only slight deviations from this pattern occur when institutions are considered by types. The responses from private institutions follow the same sequence as noted above, while publicly controlled colleges and universities ranked rehabilitation slightly ahead of expansion (114 "much importance" responses to 112). When the returns were analyzed by geographic regions, New England supported its reputation for independent and divergent opinion by voting enrichment the most important purpose in its "much" column, followed by acceleration, rehabilitation, exploration, expansion, and demonstration. Other geographic subdivisions adhered more closely to the national pattern.

To permit directors to cite goals important to their sessions but not included in the specifically named purposes, the questionnaire included as the seventh item "other (specify)." Of the 318 "write-in" responses, 188 (59.1 percent) stated that meeting the needs of teachers for enrichment, degrees, and certification or renewal was of much or average importance in their summer

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[10] There were 41 different beginning days in this sample.

[11] The definition of each of these terms may be found on the third page of the questionnaire reproduced in the appendix of this publication.

[12] *Summer Sessions*, op. cit., p. 48–51.

[13] When "average" responses are added to "much" responses, acceleration remains the most important function, but rehabilitation (778) becomes second in frequency, with enrichment third (735), expansion fourth (722), then exploration (430) and demonstration (314).

Table 8.—Number of institutions by region, purpose of summer session, and degree of importance placed on each purpose: Aggregate United States, 1960

Purpose and region	Total institutions	Total answering	Degree of importance			
			Much	Average	Slight	None
ACCELERATION						
All regions	**1, 369**	**1, 208**	**460**	**495**	**198**	**55**
New England	97	80	18	20	26	16
Mideast	244	207	70	83	37	17
Great Lakes	230	197	76	75	38	8
Plains	161	147	47	73	25	2
Southeast	318	288	123	129	31	5
Southwest	118	108	49	50	7	2
Rocky Mountains	35	30	6	13	10	1
Far West	156	141	69	47	23	2
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	10	2	5	1	2
EXPANSION						
All regions	**1, 369**	**1, 127**	**396**	**326**	**206**	**199**
New England	97	70	12	13	20	25
Mideast	244	188	47	53	35	53
Great Lakes	230	188	71	56	30	31
Plains	161	130	49	38	27	16
Southeast	318	274	109	84	49	32
Southwest	118	102	45	35	13	9
Rocky Mountains	35	30	8	12	3	7
Far West	156	135	51	34	27	23
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	10	4	1	2	3
ENRICHMENT						
All regions	**1, 369**	**1, 158**	**275**	**460**	**288**	**135**
New England	97	80	31	26	13	10
Mideast	244	205	51	73	62	19
Great Lakes	230	190	41	86	44	19
Plains	161	141	34	63	31	13
Southeast	318	265	54	102	71	38
Southwest	118	103	13	36	35	19
Rocky Mountains	35	29	6	14	5	4
Far West	156	135	40	59	25	11
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	10	5	1	2	2
REHABILITATION						
All regions	**1, 369**	**1, 188**	**236**	**542**	**348**	**62**
New England	97	75	14	32	19	10
Mideast	244	208	50	91	57	10
Great Lakes	230	193	32	89	54	18
Plains	161	144	18	57	62	7
Southeast	318	281	64	149	61	7
Southwest	118	108	21	55	29	3
Rocky Mountains	35	30	9	9	11	1
Far West	156	139	26	55	52	6
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	10	2	5	3	---------
EXPLORATION						
All regions	**1, 369**	**1, 093**	**155**	**275**	**317**	**346**
New England	97	70	14	15	20	21
Mideast	244	184	24	39	59	62
Great Lakes	230	182	28	47	45	62
Plains	161	132	20	41	43	28
Southeast	318	256	28	55	83	90
Southwest	118	102	12	29	29	32
Rocky Mountains	35	30	7	7	11	5
Far West	156	127	21	38	25	43
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	10	1	4	2	3

Table 8.—Number of institutions by region, purpose of summer session, and degree of importance placed on each purpose: Aggregate United States, 1960—Continued

Region	Total institutions	Total answering	Degree of importance			
			Much	Average	Slight	None
DEMONSTRATION						
All regions	**1, 369**	**1, 082**	**92**	**222**	**366**	**402**
New England	97	67	11	12	20	24
Mideast	244	181	18	36	58	69
Great Lakes	230	180	14	41	56	69
Plains	161	130	6	32	49	43
Southeast	318	253	16	40	93	104
Southwest	118	102	3	17	38	44
Rocky Mountains	35	30	6	11	6	7
Far West	156	129	18	27	45	39
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	10	----------	6	1	3

terms. Other purposes received only scattered mention. The second in frequency, cited in 16 questionnaires, was the offering of opportunities for further training to nonteaching professions such as nursing, engineering, law, priesthood and the ministry. Other goals mentioned included accommodating students home on vacation from other colleges, 15; permitting students to lighten regular term credit loads by taking summer work, 15; and offering a range of graduate work not possible in the fall and spring sessions, 14. It is interesting to note that three colleges said that providing additional faculty income was an important purpose of their sessions, while only two mentioned the use of facilities which would otherwise be idle.

The responses to this section of the questionnaire permit some conclusions. The summer session is now a multi-purpose institution serving a varied clientele; the responses clearly demonstrate that acceleration, expansion, enrichment, rehabilitation, and service to teachers are all major goals. The first four of these, and to some extent the fifth, are also associated with the work of the regular academic year, further evidence that summer sessions are becoming integrated into a common pattern with fall and spring sessions. Acceleration and expansion, particularly the latter, indicate that the directors of summer sessions intend to use them as part of the solution to the problem of increasing enrollments.

On the other hand, the relatively minor emphasis given to exploration and demonstration may indicate that summer sessions are abandoning the function of offering opportunity for curricular experimentation which historically was used both to justify and to attack their existence. This retreat from unorthodoxy would be further evidence of the growing identity with the regular academic year.

Summary

Though the origins of summer sessions are obscure, it is likely that they evolved from such antecedents as summer institutes and normals, lyceum and Chautauqua series, and private schools sponsored by groups of teachers. The modern summer session evidently did not emerge until the end of the last century.

The historical sketch stressed two aspects of previous summer sessions, their defects and the basic characteristics which they displayed. Many, though by no means all, of the earlier sessions had serious defects, due basically to their poverty and the general necessity for self-sufficiency which caused them to pay inadequate salaries and to solicit students by lowering admissions standards, by unprofessional promotion, by permitting inflated credit loads, and by offering popular but academically dubious courses. During the course of the years, summer sessions have overcome most of these deficiencies, in many instances all of them.

Summer sessions in general have displayed two basic and corollary characteristics during their history. The first is the almost constant growth in the number of individual sessions and their enrollments; the second, a steady expansion in the variety of curriculums, courses, and services offered to registrants. The returns of the 1960 questionnaire indicated that both tendencies will continue: 77 additional institutions planned to inaugurate summer sessions not later than 1963; and 407 of the 1,369 existing sessions intended to expand by various means, including new courses, degree-programs, and terms. On the other hand, 28 sessions planned to decrease or discontinue operations after 1960, and the great majority of institutions—1,125—offered only one or two summer terms.

Teachers remained a significant proportion of the summer student enrollment in 1960, estimated to be half or more of the registrants in 47 percent of those 1,138 institutions replying to this question. This, however, was a considerable contrast with the past when they comprised the bulk of enrollments in most institutions. It was evident that the summer session had become multi-purpose by 1960, a conclusion based also upon the fact that most deans and directors considered that acceleration, expansion, and enrichment were the most important goals of their sessions.

CHAPTER IV

Financing Summer Sessions, 1960

THE LACK OF MONEY has been at the root of most difficulties in early summer sessions, as their critics averred. This lack helped to effect the inadequate salaries, the higher tuitions and fees, the impairment of academic standards, the stress on entertainment, and the lowering of admissions requirements which have been virulently condemned.

Poverty of resources grew from the necessity to balance income and expenditure, an essential characteristic of most early sessions. As noted in chapter II, many summer sessions began as private ventures by faculties without official institutional sponsorship or support. Summer salaries and other expenses, then, necessarily varied directly with tuition in the absence of endowment and other sources of support found in the regular session. This same self-sufficiency also characterized many of the teachers institutes and summer normals. The single source of income and the fact that the proportion of summer to regular-year enrollment was generally lower than the proportion of summer to regular-year faculty inevitably meant lower salaries in summer sessions. It also frequently produced unprofessional competition among summer schools for more students, resulting in the abuses already mentioned.

Many institutions which assumed the sponsorship of these private sessions, normals, and institutes retained the principle of self-sufficiency, hesitating to weaken the regular session by diverting any funds to the new and dubious adjunct. They regarded the summer session as a tributary service activity, apart from the main stream of their responsibility and inferior to it. In brief, deplorable summer salaries and practices reflected both an economic situation and a psychology of status. Institutions would not provide adequate financing until convinced that the educational and social values of the summer session merited the same subsidies which the regular session received.

But these are the annals of the past. The questionnaire of 1960 sought, by means of an eight-item section on budgets, tuition and fees, and faculty contractual practices, to ascertain the broad dimensions of policy and change, and to discover the extent to which summer sessions were financially distinct from the regular session.

Provision in Institutional Budgets

The relationship of the summer session to the annual financial plan of its institution may be one indication of its status. Thus, the first question on finance asked respondents whether the 1960 summer session expenditure was part of the 12-month budget. The returns showed that it was in 1,005 institutions, or 73.4 percent of those which held summer sessions in that year. If only those which responded to this item are included, the percentage increases to 78.0.

Considered by type of institution, this practice was most prevalent among technical institutes (92.9 percent), independent technological schools (84.9 percent), art schools (81.3 percent), and universities (80.7 percent), and least frequent in semiprofessional schools (64.3 percent) and junior colleges (64.6 percent). It is notable that over 60 percent of institutions in all categories included their summer sessions in their annual budgets. (See table 9.)

Regional analysis, as shown in table 10, indicates that New England, at 61.8 percent, and the Far West, 67.3 percent, had the lowest incidence of summer session inclusion in the annual budget, while the Southwest and the Rocky Mountain area had the highest, with 83.9 percent and 77.1 percent respectively.

These statistics demonstrated that the summer session has won its place, quantitatively, in the advanced, year-round financial planning of American institutions of higher education. They do not, however, indicate the kinds and extent of the plans, nor whether expenditures were made in a like manner and amount for regular and summer sessions. There is need for further and more detailed studies on these points.

Percent of Educational Budget Expended

Further indication of the relative position of summer sessions may also be indirectly inferred from responses to the third item in the section on finance which asked institutions what percent of the 12-month budget account, "Educational and General Expenditures," was expended on the summer session. Tables 11 and 12 record the responses to this question.

Table 9.—Number and percent of institutions whose summer session was part of the 12-month budget, by type and control: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type and control	Number of institutions				Percent of institutions			
	Total institutions	Yes	No	No answer	Total institutions	Yes	No	No answer
Aggregate United States	**1, 369**	**1, 005**	**284**	**80**	**100. 0**	**73. 4**	**20. 8**	**5. 8**
Public	523	370	138	15	38. 2	70. 7	26. 4	2. 9
Private	846	635	146	65	61. 8	75. 1	17. 3	7. 6
4-year institutions								
Universities	145	117	25	3	100. 0	80. 7	17. 2	2. 1
Public	89	70	18	1	61. 4	78. 7	20. 2	1. 1
Private	56	47	7	2	38. 6	83. 9	12. 5	3. 6
Liberal arts colleges	592	436	127	29	100. 0	73. 6	21. 5	4. 9
Public	82	65	16	1	13. 9	79. 3	19. 5	1. 2
Private	510	371	111	28	86. 1	72. 7	21. 8	5. 5
Independently organized professional schools:								
Teachers colleges	181	129	45	7	100. 0	71. 3	24. 8	3. 9
Public	154	109	42	3	85. 1	70. 8	27. 3	1. 9
Private	27	20	3	4	14. 9	74. 1	11. 1	14. 8
Technological schools	33	28	4	1	100. 0	84. 9	12. 1	3. 0
Public	12	9	3	0	36. 3	75. 0	25. 0	0. 0
Private	21	19	1	1	63. 7	90. 4	4. 8	4. 8
Theological and religious schools (all private)	62	50	4	8	100. 0	80. 5	6. 5	13. 0
Art schools (all private)	32	26	2	4	100. 0	81. 3	6. 2	12. 5
Other	36	29	2	5	100. 0	80. 5	5. 6	13. 9
Public	3	2	1	0	8. 3	66. 7	33. 3	0. 0
Private	33	27	1	5	91. 7	81. 8	3. 0	15. 2
2-year institutions								
Junior colleges	260	168	73	19	100. 0	64. 6	28. 1	7. 3
Public	178	112	57	9	68. 5	62. 9	32. 0	5. 1
Private	82	56	16	10	31. 5	68. 3	19. 5	12. 2
Technical institutes	14	13	------	1	100. 0	92. 9	------	7. 1
Public	3	2	------	1	21. 4	66. 7	------	33. 3
Private	11	11	0	0	78. 6	100. 0	------	------
Semiprofessional schools	14	9	2	3	100. 0	64. 3	14. 3	21. 4
Public	2	1	1	0	14. 3	50. 0	50. 0	0. 0
Private	12	8	1	3	85. 7	66. 7	8. 3	25. 0

Table 10.—Number and percent of institutions, whose summer session was part of the 12-month budget, by region, control, and land-grant institutions: Aggregate United States, 1960

Region and control	Number of institutions				Percent of institutions			
	Total insti-tutions	Yes	No	No answer	Total insti-tutions	Yes	No	No answer
New England	97	60	28	9	100. 0	61. 8	28. 9	9. 3
Public	24	8	15	1	24. 7	33. 3	62. 5	4. 2
Private	73	52	13	8	75. 3	71. 2	17. 8	11. 0
Mideast	244	168	59	17	100. 0	68. 8	24. 2	7. 0
Public	57	24	32	1	23. 4	42. 1	56. 1	1. 8
Private	187	144	27	16	76. 6	77. 0	14. 4	8. 6
Great Lakes	230	177	36	17	100. 0	77. 0	15. 6	7. 4
Public	65	52	12	1	28. 2	80. 0	18. 5	1. 5
Private	165	125	24	16	71. 8	75. 8	14. 5	9. 7
Plains	161	123	34	4	100. 0	76. 4	21. 1	2. 5
Public	62	46	16	0	38. 5	74. 2	25. 8	0. 0
Private	99	77	18	4	61. 5	77. 8	18. 2	4. 0
Southeast	318	239	65	14	100. 0	75. 2	20. 4	4. 4
Public	135	104	26	5	42. 5	77. 0	19. 3	3. 7
Private	183	135	39	9	57. 5	73. 8	21. 3	4. 9
Southwest	118	99	16	3	100. 0	83. 9	13. 6	2. 5
Public	70	58	9	3	59. 3	82. 8	12. 9	4. 3
Private	48	41	7	0	40. 7	85. 4	14. 6	0. 0
Rocky Mountains	35	27	5	3	100. 0	77. 1	14. 3	8. 6
Public	22	21	1	0	62. 9	95. 5	4. 5	0. 0
Private	13	6	4	3	37. 1	46. 1	30. 8	23. 1
Far West	156	105	39	12	100. 0	67. 3	25. 0	7. 7
Public	83	54	25	4	53. 2	65. 1	30. 1	4. 8
Private	73	51	14	8	46. 8	69. 9	19. 2	10. 9
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	7	2	1	100. 0	70. 0	20. 0	10. 0
Public	5	3	2	0	50. 0	60. 0	40. 0	0. 0
Private	5	4	0	1	50. 0	80. 0	0. 0	20. 0
Land-grant institutions	71	52	18	1	100. 0	73. 2	25. 4	1. 4

Interpretations of these data must be made with caution, since the response rate on this item, 67.3 percent, was one of the lowest for the questionnaire. It is evident that the greatest incidence of responding institutions was in the 1 to 5 percent bracket, 40.4 percent, nearly double that of the bracket second in frequency, 6 to 10 percent, at 20.4 percent of respondents. Taken together, four-fifths of the respondents reported that 15 percent or less of their annual educational and general expenditures were spent in summer session. Slightly higher frequencies prevailed for junior colleges (89.5 percent), universities (86.0 percent) and liberal arts colleges (85.1 percent), while conversely only 65.0 percent of teachers colleges expended 15 percent or less of their annual educational and general expenditures in summer schools. The regions showed relatively small deviations from the overall national norms, except for the Southwest and Alaska-Hawaii, which had a greater incidence of colleges and universities in the categories of higher percentages of annual expenditures for summer sessions.

Table 11.—Number of institutions by percent of "Educational and General Expenditures" for the fiscal year spent for summer session, by type and enrollment size: [1] Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution and enrollment size	Total institutions	Total answering	Percent of fiscal year expenditures spent for summer session						
			None	1 to 5	6 to 10	11 to 15	16 to 20	21 to 25	26 and more
Aggregate United States	**1,369**	**921**	**61**	**372**	**188**	**119**	**107**	**49**	**25**
4-year institutions									
Universities	145	107	5	62	14	11	7	5	3
1,000 to 2,499	4	2	------	2	------	------	------	------	------
2,500 to 4,999	25	19	------	13	3	------	2	------	1
5,000 to 9,999	55	41	------	23	6	5	4	1	2
10,000 to 19,999	47	33	4	17	4	4	1	3	------
20,000 or more	14	12	1	7	1	2	------	1	------
Liberal arts colleges	592	402	24	174	91	53	41	13	6
Below 200	16	10	1	4	2	3	------	------	------
200 to 499	104	65	2	30	12	7	10	3	1
500 to 999	199	135	10	59	28	21	13	3	1
1,000 to 2,499	199	133	10	62	32	13	10	4	2
2,500 to 4,999	43	37	------	12	6	7	8	3	1
5,000 to 9,999	20	15	------	5	7	2	------	------	1
10,000 to 19,999	11	7	1	2	4	------	------	------	------
Independently organized professional schools: Teachers colleges	181	140	10	25	32	24	29	14	6
Below 200	7	3	------	------	2	------	------	------	1
200 to 499	16	13	------	3	2	4	3	------	1
500 to 999	31	26	------	9	7	2	6	2	------
1,000 to 2,499	73	49	8	6	9	6	11	5	4
2,500 to 4,999	46	42	2	6	9	10	8	7	------
5,000 to 9,999	8	7	------	1	3	2	1	------	------
Technological schools	33	26	1	7	5	1	7	3	2
200 to 499	3	3	------	------	------	------	1	1	1
500 to 999	4	3	1	------	------	------	------	1	1
1,000 to 2,499	13	11	------	3	3	------	4	1	------
2,500 to 4,999	6	4	------	1	1	------	2	------	------
5,000 to 9,999	7	5	------	3	1	1	------	------	------
Theological and religious schools	62	37	4	19	9	1	2	2	------
Below 200	25	13	2	7	3	------	------	1	------
200 to 499	28	18	2	8	5	1	1	1	------
500 to 999	7	5	------	3	1	------	1	------	------
1,000 to 2,499	2	1	------	1	------	------	------	------	------
Art schools	32	20	------	4	2	6	4	1	3
Below 200	11	6	------	------	------	------	3	1	2
200 to 499	13	8	------	2	2	4	------	------	------
500 to 999	6	4	------	2	------	1	1	------	------
1,000 to 2,499	2	2	------	------	------	1	------	------	1
Other	36	19	1	6	2	3	1	4	2
Below 200	4	2	------	2	------	------	------	------	------
200 to 499	13	8	------	4	1	1	------	2	------
500 to 999	8	3	------	------	------	------	------	2	1
1,000 to 2,499	6	3	------	------	------	1	1	------	1
2,500 to 4,999	5	3	1	------	1	1	------	------	------

See footnote at end of table.

Table 11.—Number of institutions by percent of "Educational and General Expenditures" for the fiscal year spent for summer session, by type and enrollment size:[1] Aggregate United States, 1960—Continued

Type of institution and enrollment size	Total institutions	Total answering	Percent of fiscal year expenditures spent for summer session						
			None	1 to 5	6 to 10	11 to 15	16 to 20	21 to 25	26 and more
2-year institutions									
Junior colleges	260	153	16	72	30	19	11	3	2
Below 200	43	23	3	5	8	4	2	1	------
200 to 499	64	36	7	15	8	1	3	2	------
500 to 999	62	43	4	17	6	10	4	------	2
1,000 to 2.499	52	29	1	18	6	2	2	------	------
2,500 to 4,999	25	12	------	11	------	1	------	------	------
5,000 to 9,999	10	7	------	4	2	1	------	------	------
10,000 to 19,999	3	2	------	2	------	------	------	------	------
20,000 or more	1	1	1	------	------	------	------	------	------
Technical institutes	14	11	------	3	1	1	2	3	1
Below 200	3	2	------	------	------	------	1	------	1
200 to 499	1	1	------	------	------	1	------	------	------
500 to 999	1	1	------	------	------	------	1	------	------
1,000 to 2,499	8	6	------	2	1	------	------	3	------
2,500 to 4,999	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
5,000 to 9,999	1	1	------	1	------	------	------	------	------
Semiprofessional schools	14	6	------	------	2	------	3	1	------
Below 200	3	1	------	------	------	------	1	------	------
200 to 499	5	2	------	------	------	------	1	1	------
500 to 999	4	1	------	------	------	------	1	------	------
1,000 to 2,499	1	1	------	------	1	------	------	------	------
2,500 to 4,999	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
5,000 to 9,999	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
10,000 to 19,999	1	1	------	------	1	------	------	------	------

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[1] Based on 1961 fall enrollment.

Table 12.—Number of institutions, by region, control, and land-grant institutions, by percent of "Educational and General Expenditures" for the fiscal year spent for summer sessions: Aggregate United States, 1960

Region and control	Total institutions	Total answering	Percent of fiscal year expenditures spent for summer session						
			None	1 to 5	6 to 10	11 to 15	16 to 20	21 to 25	26 and more
New England	97	53	4	26	11	6	4	1	1
Mideast	244	155	17	68	30	20	11	4	5
Great Lakes	230	145	7	64	33	11	20	8	2
Plains	161	118	12	50	17	16	16	6	1
Southeast	318	228	15	78	57	32	25	14	7
Southwest	118	92	------	21	17	19	21	11	3
Rocky Mountains	35	22	------	13	4	2	3	------	------
Far West	156	99	6	49	19	10	5	4	6
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	9	------	3	------	3	2	1	------
Public control	523	390	31	164	73	51	40	21	10
Private control	846	531	30	208	115	68	67	28	15
Land-grant institutions	71	62	3	33	7	8	2	6	3

Requirement for Self-Sufficiency

The second question on finance, one of the most significant in the questionnaire, asked respondents whether their summer sessions were "required to be self-sustaining" in 1960. Comparisons with previous conditions are possible on this topic. Available evidence indicates that most, or nearly all, of the early sessions were under this constraint. Some improvement had occurred by the time of the unpublished study of the 1940 session, but it recorded that 190 of the 350 responding summer schools, or 54.3 percent, had to be self-sufficient, including 68 percent of the private institutions and 38.0 percent of the public, 63 percent of the junior colleges and 35 percent of the teachers colleges.[1]

The 1960 study revealed surprisingly little change. Of the 1,231 institutions answering this item, 50.5 percent required their sessions to pay their own way. (See table 13).

Table 13.—Number and percent of institutions, whose summer session was required to be self-sustaining, by type region, and control: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution, region, and control	Number of institutions				Percent of institutions			
	Total institutions	Yes	No	No answer	Total institutions	Yes	No	No answer
Aggregate United States	**1, 369**	**621**	**610**	**138**	**100. 0**	**45. 4**	**44. 5**	**10. 1**
Total public	**523**	**198**	**298**	**27**	**38. 2**	**37. 8**	**57. 0**	**5. 2**
Total private	**846**	**423**	**312**	**111**	**61. 8**	**50. 0**	**36. 9**	**13. 1**
4-year institutions								
Universities	145	61	79	5	100. 0	42. 1	54. 5	3. 4
Liberal arts colleges	592	317	229	46	100. 0	53. 5	38. 7	7. 8
Independently organized professional schools:								
Teachers colleges	181	66	107	8	100. 0	36. 5	59. 1	4. 4
Technological schools	33	14	17	2	100. 0	42. 4	51. 5	6. 1
Theological and religious schools	62	17	31	14	100. 0	27. 4	50. 0	22. 6
Art schools	32	10	17	5	100. 0	31. 3	53. 1	15. 6
Other	36	9	18	9	100. 0	25. 0	50. 0	25. 0
2-year institutions								
Junior colleges	260	114	105	41	100. 0	43. 8	40. 4	15. 8
Technical institutes	14	8	4	2	100. 0	57. 1	28. 6	14. 3
Semiprofessional schools	14	5	3	6	100. 0	35. 7	21. 4	42. 9
Land-grant institutions	71	22	49	0	100. 0	31. 0	69. 0	0. 0
Region								
New England	97	56	31	10	100. 0	57. 7	32. 0	10. 3
Public	24	18	6	0	24. 7	75. 0	25. 0	0. 0
Private	73	38	25	10	75. 3	52. 1	34. 2	13. 7
Mideast	244	147	71	26	100. 0	60. 2	29. 1	10. 7
Public	57	44	11	2	23. 4	77. 2	19. 3	3. 5
Private	187	103	60	24	76. 6	55. 1	32. 1	12. 8
Great Lakes	230	94	109	27	100. 0	40. 9	47. 4	11. 7
Public	65	14	47	4	28. 2	21. 5	72. 3	6. 2
Private	165	80	62	23	71. 8	48. 5	37. 6	13. 9
Plains	161	72	78	11	100. 0	44. 7	48. 5	6. 8
Public	62	20	40	2	38. 5	32. 3	64. 5	3. 2
Private	99	52	38	9	61. 5	52. 5	38. 4	9. 1
Southeast	318	124	159	35	100. 0	39. 0	50. 0	11. 0
Public	135	42	87	6	42. 5	31. 1	64. 4	4. 5
Private	183	82	72	29	57. 5	44. 8	39. 3	15. 9

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[1] *Summer Sessions*, op. cit., p. 118–19.

Table 13.—Number and percent of institutions, whose summer session was required to be self-sustaining, by type, region, and control: Aggregate United States, 1960—Continued

Type of institution, region, and control	Number of institutions				Percent of institutions			
	Total institutions	Yes	No	No answer	Total institutions	Yes	No	No answer
Southwest	118	45	64	9	100. 0	38. 1	54. 3	7. 6
Public	70	23	41	6	59. 3	32. 8	58. 6	8. 6
Private	48	22	23	3	40. 7	45. 8	47. 9	6. 3
Rocky Mountains	35	6	25	4	100. 0	17. 2	71. 4	11. 4
Public	22	1	20	1	62. 9	4. 5	91. 0	4. 5
Private	13	5	5	3	37. 1	38. 5	38. 5	23. 0
Far West	156	70	70	16	100. 0	44. 9	44. 9	10. 2
Public	83	34	43	6	53. 2	41. 0	51. 8	7. 2
Private	73	36	27	10	46. 8	49. 3	37. 0	13. 7
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	7	3	0	100. 0	70. 0	30. 0	0. 0
Public	5	2	3	0	50. 0	40. 0	60. 0	0. 0
Private	5	5	0	0	50. 0	100. 0	0. 0	0. 0

As in 1940, the requirement of self-support was notably higher in responding private institutions at 57.6 percent than in public institutions at 39.9 percent. Summer sessions were most likely to have to pay their own way in technical institutes, liberal arts colleges, and junior colleges, least likely in art and other independently organized professional schools, and, as in 1940, teachers colleges. There were also marked differences between regions. Self-sufficiency was most frequent among the institutions of the Mideast (60.2 percent) and New England (57.7 percent), least frequent in the Rocky Mountains (17.2 percent), the Southwest (38.1 percent), and the Southeast (39.0 percent).

Insistence that summer sessions in nearly half the institutions of higher learning in the United States must pay their own way demonstrates that they had not achieved financial equality with the regular sessions which enjoy the subsidies of endowment and appropriation. This condition, relatively unchanged for 20 years, remained a major weakness in the status and operation of summer sessions.

Student Fees

Closely related to self-sufficiency, the fourth question asked directors what percent of their summer sessions' "Educational and General Income" came from student fees. The actual rate of charges was not requested.[2] The unpublished study of the 1940 sessions data on fee revenues in the 1935 and 1940 summer sessions is summarized below for the purpose of comparison.[3]

Percent of revenues derived from student fees	1935			1940		
	Number of institutions			Number of institutions		
	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private
0 to 29	30	28	2	27	23	4
30 to 59	40	28	12	49	38	11
60 to 69	15	10	5	25	15	10
70 to 79	14	8	6	21	11	10
80 to 89	20	12	8	25	12	13
90 to 99	14	6	8	35	14	21
100	197	53	144	198	55	143
Total	330	145	185	380	168	212

These data show that in 1935 only 30 percent of the institutions surveyed derived less than 80 percent of their summer session revenues from student fees, while 59.7 percent obtained all their income from that source. Comparable figures for 1940 were 32.0 and 52.1 percents.

The 1960 survey revealed startling changes. Only one institution, or .07 of 1 percent of the 1,369 which held summer sessions, stated that its revenues came entirely from fees and tuitions. Excluding the considerable number of nonrespondents, 47.3 percent obtained 75 percent or less from these sources and 27.2 percent received less than 26 percent. In 1935 and 1940, by contrast, only 9.0 percent and 7.1 percent respectively of the summer sesssions obtained less than 30 percent of their income from student fees and tuitions.[4] It is clear that the average summer session student of 1960 paid directly a much smaller proportion of the costs of his summer education than his predecessor in 1940 had done.

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[2] Pertinent data on regular-year tuition and fees may be found in W. Robert Bokelman, *Higher Education Planning and Management Data, 1960–61*, OE 53004–61, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1961, p. 54.

[3] *Summer Sessions*, op. cit., p. 112–13.

Table 14 shows that independent technological schools, liberal arts colleges, and universities

Table 14.—Number and percent of institutions, by percent of "Educational and General Income" obtained from summer session tuition and fees, and by type and control: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type and control of institution	Number of institutions								Percent of institutions							
	Total institutions	No answer	None	1 to 25 percent	26 to 50 percent	51 to 75 percent	76 to 99 percent	100 percent	Total institutions	No answer	None	1 to 25 percent	26 to 50 percent	51 to 75 percent	76 to 99 percent	100 percent
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Aggregate United States	**1,369**	**344**	**60**	**219**	**107**	**99**	**539**	**1**	**100.0**	**25.1**	**4.4**	**16.0**	**7.8**	**7.2**	**39.4**	**0.1**
4-year institutions																
Universities	145	32	1	22	14	16	60	0	100.0	22.1	0.7	15.2	9.6	11.0	41.4	0.0
Public	89	16	1	19	12	12	29	0	61.4	18.0	1.1	21.3	13.5	13.5	32.6	0.0
Private	56	16	0	3	2	4	31	0	38.6	28.6	0.0	5.4	3.6	7.1	55.3	0.0
Liberal arts colleges	592	142	9	89	43	42	266	1	100.0	24.0	1.5	15.0	7.3	7.1	45.0	0.1
Public	82	10	2	22	12	9	26	1	13.9	12.2	2.5	26.8	14.6	11.0	31.7	1.2
Private	510	132	7	67	31	33	240	0	86.1	25.9	1.4	13.1	6.1	6.5	47.0	0.0
Independently organized professional schools:																
Teachers colleges	181	35	6	43	20	22	55	0	100.0	19.3	3.3	23.8	11.0	12.2	30.4	0.0
Public	154	26	6	39	19	19	45	0	85.1	16.9	3.9	25.4	12.3	12.3	29.2	0.0
Private	27	9	0	4	1	3	10	0	14.9	33.3	0.0	14.8	3.7	11.1	37.1	0.0
Technological schools	33	7	0	5	3	1	17	0	100.0	21.2	0.0	13.2	9.1	3.0	51.5	0.0
Public	12	3	0	2	2	0	5	0	36.3	25.0	0.0	16.7	16.7	0.0	41.6	0.0
Private	21	4	0	3	1	1	12	0	63.7	19.0	0.0	14.3	4.8	4.8	57.1	0.0
Theological and religious schools (all private)	62	23	1	13	5	2	18	0	100.0	37.1	1.6	21.0	8.1	3.2	29.0	0.0
Art schools (all private)	32	11	0	7	1	0	13	0	100.0	34.4	0.0	21.9	3.1	0.0	40.6	0.0
Other	36	14	1	6	1	0	14	0	100.0	38.9	2.8	16.6	2.8	0.0	38.9	0.0
Public	3	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	8.3	33.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	66.7	0.0
Private	33	13	1	6	1	0	12	0	91.7	39.4	3.0	18.2	3.0	0.0	36.4	0.0
2-year institutions																
Junior colleges	260	70	41	28	18	16	87	0	100.0	26.9	15.8	10.8	6.9	6.1	33.5	0.0
Public	178	38	39	13	17	9	62	0	68.5	21.3	21.9	7.3	9.6	5.1	34.8	0.0
Private	82	32	2	15	1	7	25	0	31.5	39.0	2.5	18.3	1.2	8.5	30.5	0.0
Technical institutes	14	3	0	3	2	0	6	0	100.0	21.4	0.0	21.4	14.3	0.0	42.9	0.0
Public	3	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	21.4	33.3	0.0	0.0	33.4	0.0	33.3	0.0
Private	11	2	0	3	1	0	5	0	78.6	18.2	0.0	27.3	9.1	0.0	45.4	0.0
Semiprofessional schools	14	7	1	3	0	0	3	0	100.0	50.0	7.2	21.4	0.0	0.0	21.4	0.0
Public	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	14.3	50.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Private	12	6	0	3	0	0	3	0	85.7	50.0	0.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	25.0	0.0

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[4] Exact comparisons are impossible because the 1940 and 1960 questionnaires employed different percentage breakdowns.

tended to obtain the highest proportions of their incomes from student fees and tuitions; at the other end of the continuum were the semiprofessional schools and schools of theology and religion. In most types, publicly controlled institutions received a smaller percentage of income from these sources than those under private sponsorship.

There were also significant regional differences. Over half of the institutions in New England and the Mideast derived more than 75 percent of their revenues from these sources, as contrasted with 25.7 percent of the colleges and universities in the Rocky Mountain area, 32.2 percent in the Southwest and 33.6 percent in the Southeast (table 15).

When institutions were analyzed by size of enrollment, there were considerable differences, but little consistency. In terms of the percent in each category which derived half of their income or less from student fees and tuition, the largest category—those over 20,000—ranked first at 53.3 percent, followed by the institutions from 2,500 to 4,999 at 46.0 percent, third by the 5,000 to 9,999 group at 33.7 percent, then the under 200 group at 27.7 percent. On the other hand, the group in size 10,000 to 19,999 was next to lowest at 24.2 percent in frequency of institutions which received half or less of their incomes from these direct assessments;[5] the lowest percent in frequency was the 1,000 to 2,499 group at 23.6 percent.

Twenty-seven percent of the largest (20,000 or more) and the smallest (below 200) categories derived more than 75 percent of their income from student tuition and fees, and half of the 10,000 to 19,999 category received over 75 percent from tuition and fees.

Table 15.—Number and percent of institutions, by percent of "Educational and General Income" obtained from summer session tuition and fees, and by region: Aggregate United States, 1960

Region	Number of institutions								Percent of institutions							
	Total	No answer-	None	1 to 25 percent	26 to 50 percent	51 to 75 percent	76 to 99 percent	100 percent	Total	No answer	None	1 to 25 percent	26 to 50 percent	51 to 75 percent	76 to 99 percent	100 percent
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
New England	97	27	4	9	2	4	51	0	100. 0	27. 8	4. 1	9. 3	2. 1	4. 1	52. 6	0. 0
Mideast	244	60	3	27	10	16	128	0	100. 0	24. 6	1. 2	11. 1	4. 1	6. 6	52. 4	. 0
Great Lakes	230	73	4	33	19	15	86	0	100. 0	31. 7	1. 7	14. 4	8. 3	6. 5	37. 4	. 0
Plains	161	33	1	33	19	14	61	0	100. 0	20. 5	. 6	20. 5	11. 8	8. 7	37. 9	. 0
Southeast	318	82	9	60	32	27	107	1	100. 0	25. 8	2. 8	18. 9	10. 1	8. 5	33. 6	. 3
Southwest	118	21	0	32	17	10	38	0	100. 0	17. 8	. 0	27. 1	14. 4	8. 5	32. 2	. 0
Rocky Mountains	35	11	0	8	3	4	9	0	100. 0	31. 4	. 0	22. 9	8. 6	11. 4	25. 7	. 0
Far West	156	34	39	15	5	8	55	0	100. 0	21. 8	25. 0	9. 6	3. 2	5. 1	35. 3	. 0
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	3	0	2	0	1	4	0	100. 0	30. 0	. 0	20. 0	. 0	10. 0	40. 0	. 0

Scholarship Programs

The student in 1960 received benefits from some of the scholarship programs. There were 367 regular-session undergraduate scholarship programs available to the summer student and 181 graduate scholarship programs.[6] The number of institutions of higher education where regular-session scholarship programs were also available in summer session, both for undergraduate and graduate programs for 1960, is shown in the following tabulation.

States and outlying parts	*Number of institutions with—*	
	Undergraduate scholarship programs	*Graduate scholarship programs*
Aggregate United States	**367**	**181**
Alabama	8	3
Arkansas	3	2
California	31	16
Colorado	4	3
Connecticut	4	4
District of Columbia	4	2
Florida	9	2
Georgia	14	5
Hawaii	1	0
Idaho	1	1

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[5] Enrollment figures used for categorizing institutions were those reported for the regular session of 1960–61.

[6] A directory listing the institutions which make these programs available has been published by the Office of Education under the title, *Regular-Year Scholarship Programs of Institutions of Higher Education Applicable for Summer Session Study, 1960*, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, OE–55033, 1962.

States and outlying parts	Number of institutions with—	
	Undergraduate scholarship programs	Graduate scholarship programs
Illinois	21	15
Indiana	11	5
Iowa	9	4
Kansas	2	2
Kentucky	14	7
Louisiana	9	2
Maine	1	0
Maryland	2	0
Massachusetts	10	12
Michigan	8	3
Minnesota	6	4
Mississippi	8	1
Missouri	11	5
Montana	1	1
Nebraska	7	1
New Jersey	7	3
New Mexico	1	2
New York	35	18
North Carolina	15	1
North Dakota	1	2
Ohio	16	10
Oklahoma	2	0
Oregon	1	1
Pennsylvania	22	8
Rhode Island	0	2
South Carolina	4	3
South Dakota	2	0
Tennessee	10	6
Texas	23	13
Utah	1	1
Virginia	8	4
Washington	3	3
West Virginia	9	1
Wisconsin	2	2
Wyoming	1	1
Guam	1	0
Puerto Rico	4	0

Instruction and Departmental Research

Tables 16 and 17 show that virtually two-thirds of the 924 responding summer sessions, 612, or 66.2 percent, spent less than $50,000 for "Instruction and Departmental Research" in 1960, and only 102, or 11.1 percent, expended $200,000 or more. As might be expected, there were marked variations by size and type. Only four institutions with fewer than 1,000 students (three liberal arts colleges and an independent professional school) expended $100,000 or more in this account; expenditures of $400,000 or more were entirely in colleges and universities with 1,000 or more students.

The upper brackets were dominated by universities. The 33 institutions whose instructional costs were $400,000 or more consisted of 28 universities, 3 teachers colleges, 1 liberal arts college, and 1 technological school. On the other hand, all art schools, technical institutes, and semiprofessional schools had instructional budgets below $50,000, as did 94.7 percent of the theological schools and 93.4 percent of the junior colleges. (See table 16).

There were also distinctions by control and region. As table 17 indicates, 50.8 percent of responding public institutions expended $50,000 or more in this account as compared with 20.1 percent of private colleges and universities. In the Rocky Mountain area, half of the respondent institutions spent less than $50,000; 56.3 percent in the Southwest; and 62.4 percent in the Great Lakes region.

Incidence of 11- and 12-Month Contracts

Table 18 shows that 11- or 12-month faculty contracts prevailed in 247 institutions, or 21.3 percent of the 1,159 responding to the item. From the response, it is indicated this type of contract was more common in private institutions (26.3 percent) than in public (14.0 percent). Regionally, it found greatest favor in the Southwest and Southeast where 29.5 percent and 27.5 percent, respectively, of the institutions employed it, and was rarest in New England, 10.0 percent, and the Mideast, 13.9 percent. The 11- or 12-month contract has grown considerably in popularity since the 1940 summer session when 40 of 386 colleges and universities, 10.3 percent, reported that they used it.[7] This financial arrangement may be an outward sign of the assimilation of summer sessions and their faculties into a pattern of year-round education at those institutions which employ it.

Comparison of Summer- and Regular-Session Salaries

Directors were asked to estimate whether, assuming equal time and work loads, salaries in their 1960 summer sessions were higher than, equal to, or lower than those of the regular year. The data contained in table 19 show that higher salaries were estimated by 25 institutions, equal salaries by 644, and lower salaries by 514. If only the 1,183 responding schools are included, the frequencies in the same order are 2.1 percent, 54.4 percent, and 43.5 percent.

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[7] *Summer Sessions*, op. cit., p. 147.

Tabulation of these returns by control, type, and size of institutions appears in table 20. Summer salaries at 61.3 percent of respondent privately controlled colleges and universities were estimated to have been at least equal to regular-session stipends, as compared to 49.8 percent of public institutions. There were also differences by type of institution and by region. Schools which often operate year-round programs without distinction between seasonal terms most frequently paid higher or equal summer salaries. Among respondents, they included technological schools, 83.9 percent; technical institutes, 91.7 percent; and art schools, 91.3 percent. The regions with the highest incidence of higher or equal salaries in responding institutions were Alaska-Hawaii, at 88.9 percent; New England, 71.8 percent; the Southwest, 59.6 percent; and the Great Lakes, 64.6 percent. The frequency of higher or equal summer stipends was lowest at junior colleges, 47.0 percent, and liberal arts colleges, 52.9 percent, and, regionally, in the Rocky Mountain area, 38.7 percent, and the Southeast, 48.2 percent.

These returns confirmed the previous conclusions from the incidence of self-support—between a third and a half of the summer sessions of 1960 were still in a position of financial inferiority to the regular terms of the institutions which sponsored them. That the degree of inferiority differed widely from school to school was evident from the replies to the second section of the salary question which asked what methods were used to determine salaries which differed from those of the regular session. Many did not respond to this question and the nearly 60 which did gave explanations which were too imprecise to permit analysis. The data and conclusions presented below are, therefore, derived from the returns of 319 institutions which reported that their summer salary scales were inferior and gave usable definitions of their methods of determining them.

Computation of Summer Session Salaries

Almost all of the individual practices of computing summer session salaries reported could be categorized under one of four or five basic principles, although most of them had several variations.

The survey of the 1940 summer session reported that salaries then were most frequently based upon the annual pay of the faculty member, particularly in publicly controlled colleges and universities.[8] This continued to be true in 1960 when the majority of institutions which employed this principle expressed summer remuneration as a percentage of annual salary. In that year, 87 public colleges and universities reported figures which ranged from 7½ percent of the regular stipend, used as a base by two colleges, to 33⅓ percent used by two. The greatest frequencies were at 16 percent (15 institutions), 20 percent (11), and 11 percent (10). Thirty-one privately controlled colleges and universities had salaries ranging from 7½ percent of the regular session pay to 25 percent, with the heaviest concentration again at 16 percent. Summer salaries up to 18 percent were largely for sessions of 6 weeks or less (59 of 6 weeks or less, 13 of more than 6 weeks). Those of 18 percent and above were largely for sessions of 8 weeks or more (42 of more than 6 weeks, three of 6 weeks) as seen in table 21.

A variation of the practices described above was to translate the total regular-term salary into a weekly or monthly rate for a standard load, discount it by a specific percentage, then multiply the product by the number of weeks or months in the summer session. Eighteen public and 14 private colleges and universities used this device. The key factor was the size of the discount, which ranged from 5 to 50 percent for public, and from 10 to 50 percent for private institutions, with the greatest frequencies at 25 percent (8) and 50 percent (6).[9] (See table 22.)

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[8] *Summer Sessions*, op. cit., p. 94–97. This study notes that two-thirds of the publicly controlled colleges, universities, and teachers colleges used the academic year salary as the basis for summer pay.

[9] Salaries derived by this method may be expressed in two ways. If an institution discounted its regular salary by one-tenth for its summer scale, it could represent this fact as 10 percent (the discount) or 90 percent (the proportion of the regular rate actually paid in summer). To avoid confusion with the percentage plan described above, the latter method has been used here.

Table 16.—Number and percent of institutions by size of expenditure in account "Instruction and Departmental Research" for summer session, by type and enrollment size:[1] Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution and enrollment size	Total institutions	Institutions answering	Number of institutions by size of expenditure: None	$1,000 to 49,999	$50,000 to 99,999	$100,000 to 199,999	$200,000 to 299,999	$300,000 to 399,999	$400,000 to 499,999	$500,000 to 599,999	$600,000 to 699,999	$700,000 and over	Percent of institutions with—: Expenditure less than $50,000	Expenditure $50,000 to 199,999	Expenditure over $200,000
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Aggregate United States	**1,369**	**924**	**63**	**549**	**108**	**102**	**45**	**24**	**7**	**11**	**5**	**10**	**66.2**	**22.7**	**11.1**
4-year institutions															
Universities	145	119	1	6	16	38	17	13	4	10	5	9	5.9	45.4	48.7
1,000 to 2,499	4	3	--------	1	1	1	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	33.3	66.7	--------
2,500 to 4,999	25	21	1	1	8	9	2	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	9.5	81.0	9.5
5,000 to 9,999	55	45	--------	2	6	18	7	5	--------	3	2	2	4.5	53.3	42.2
10,000 to 19,999	47	39	--------	2	1	10	8	8	3	4	1	2	5.1	28.2	66.7
20,000 or more	14	11	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	1	3	2	5	--------	--------	100.0
Liberal arts colleges	592	395	32	275	43	25	14	5	--------	1	--------	--------	77.7	17.2	5.1
Below 200	16	9	3	4	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	100.0	--------	--------
200 to 499	104	58	2	56	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	100.0	--------	--------
500 to 999	199	131	9	113	6	3	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	93.1	6.9	--------
1,000 to 2,499	199	139	16	92	25	6	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	77.7	22.3	--------
2,500 to 4,999	43	36	1	8	9	8	7	2	--------	1	--------	--------	25.0	47.2	27.8
5,000 to 9,999	20	14	--------	--------	3	7	3	1	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	71.4	28.6
10,000 to 19,999	11	8	1	--------	--------	1	4	2	--------	--------	--------	--------	12.5	12.5	75.0
Independently organized professional schools:															
Teachers colleges	181	139	7	50	31	32	12	4	3	--------	--------	--------	41.0	45.3	13.7
Below 200	7	3	--------	3	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	100.0	--------	--------
200 to 499	16	11	1	10	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	100.0	--------	--------
500 to 999	31	25	3	20	2	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	92.0	8.0	--------
1,000 to 2,499	73	52	2	15	21	9	3	1	1	--------	--------	--------	32.7	57.7	9.6
2,500 to 4,999	46	42	1	2	8	21	6	2	2	--------	--------	--------	7.1	69.1	23.8
5,000 to 9,999	8	6	--------	--------	--------	2	3	1	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	33.3	66.7
Technological schools	33	23	2	8	7	3	1	1	--------	--------	--------	1	43.5	43.5	13.0
200 to 499	3	2	--------	1	1	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	50.0	50.0	--------
500 to 999	4	2	--------	2	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	100.0	--------	--------
1,000 to 2,499	13	10	1	3	4	1	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	1	40.0	50.0	10.0
2,500 to 4,999	6	4	--------	1	2	1	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	25.0	75.0	--------
5,000 to 9,999	7	5	1	1	--------	1	1	1	--------	--------	--------	--------	40.0	20.0	40.0

Theological and religious schools	62	38	4	32	2								94.7	5.3	
Below 200	25	13	1	12									100.0		
200 to 499	28	18	2	15	1								94.4	5.6	
500 to 999	7	6	1	4	1								83.3	16.7	
1,000 to 2,499	2	1		1									100.0		
Art schools	32	16	1	15									100.0		
Below 200	11	6	1	5									100.0		
200 to 499	13	6		6									100.0		
500 to 999	6	4		4									100.0		
1,000 to 2,499	2												100.0		
Other	36	18	1	13	2	1		1					78.8	16.7	5.5
Below 200	4	2		2									100.0		
200 to 499	13	7		6				1					85.7		14.3
500 to 999	8	2	1		1								100.0		
1,000 to 2,499	6	3		2	1								100.0		
2,500 to 4,999	5	4		3		1							75.0	25.0	
2-year institutions															
Junior colleges	260	167	14	142	7	3	1						93.4	6.0	0.6
Below 200	43	20	2	18									100.0		
200 to 499	64	41	3	38									100.0		
500 to 999	62	41	1	38	2								95.1	4.8	
1,000 to 2,499	52	34	4	28	2								94.1	5.9	
2,500 to 4,999	25	20	3	14	1	2							85.0	15.0	
5,000 to 9,999	10	8	1	6		1							87.5	12.5	
10,000 to 19,999	3	2			2									100.0	
20,000 or more	1	1					1								100.0
Technical institutes	14	6	1	5									100.0		
Below 200	3	2		2									100.0		
200 to 499	1														
500 to 999	1	1		1									100.0		
1,000 to 2,499	8	2	1	1									100.0		
2,500 to 4,999															
5,000 to 9,999	1	1		1									100.0		
Semiprofessional schools	14	3		3									100.0		
Below 200	3														
200 to 499	5	1		1									100.0		
500 to 999	4	1		1									100.0		
1,000 to 2,499	1	1		1									100.0		
2,500 to 4,999															
5,000 to 9,999															
10,000 to 19,999	1														

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[1] Based on 1961 fall enrollment.

Table 17.—Number and percent of institutions by size of expenditure in account "Instruction and Departmental Research" for summer session, by control and region: Aggregate United States, 1960

Control and region	Total institutions	Institutions answering	Number of institutions with expenditures of—										Percent of institutions with—		
			None	$1,000 to 49,999	$50,000 to 99,999	$100,000 to 199,999	$200,000 to 299,999	$300,000 to 399,999	$400,000 to 499,999	$500,000 to 599,999	$600,000 to 699,999	$700,000 and over	Expenditure less than $50,000	Expenditure $50.000 to $199,999	Expenditure over $200,000
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
U.S. Aggregate	**1,369**	**924**	**63**	**549**	**108**	**102**	**45**	**24**	**7**	**11**	**5**	**10**	**66.2**	**22.7**	**11.1**
Public control	523	411	24	178	62	70	36	15	7	9	2	8	49.2	32.1	18.7
Private control	846	513	39	371	46	32	9	9	--------	2	3	2	79.9	15.2	4.9
New England	97	59	6	37	10	2	1	2	--------	1	--------	--------	72.9	20.3	6.8
Mideast	244	167	11	99	25	20	6	2	--------	2	1	1	65.9	26.9	7.2
Great Lakes	230	141	8	80	18	15	5	5	2	3	2	3	62.4	23.4	14.2
Plains	161	118	6	78	8	15	6	3	1	--------	--------	1	71.2	19.5	9.3
Southeast	318	217	11	138	18	26	12	3	2	3	1	3	68.7	20.3	11.0
Southwest	118	87	5	44	14	11	6	4	--------	--------	1	2	56.3	28.7	15.0
Rocky Mountains	35	24	4	8	5	3	2	1	--------	1	--------	--------	50.0	33.3	16.7
Far West	156	103	11	61	9	10	7	3	1	1	--------	--------	69.9	18.4	11.7
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	8	1	4	1	--------	--------	1	1	--------	--------	--------	62.5	12.5	25.0

Table 18.—Number and percent of institutions employing 11- or 12-month faculty contracts, by region and control: Aggregate United States, 1960

Region and control	Number of institutions				Percent of institutions			
	Total	Yes	No	No answer	Total	Yes	No	No answer
Aggregate United States	**1,369**	**247**	**912**	**210**	**100.0**	**18.0**	**66.6**	**15.4**
Public	523	65	401	57	38.2	12.4	76.7	10.9
Private	846	182	511	153	61.8	21.5	60.4	18.1
New England	97	8	72	17	100.0	8.3	74.2	17.5
Public	24	1	20	3	24.7	4.2	83.3	12.5
Private	73	7	52	14	75.3	9.6	71.2	19.2
Mideast	244	29	179	36	100.0	11.9	73.4	14.7
Public	57	1	54	2	23.4	1.8	94.7	3.5
Private	187	28	125	34	76.6	15.0	66.8	18.2
Great Lakes	230	45	140	45	100.0	19.5	61.0	19.5
Public	65	3	52	10	28.2	4.6	80.0	15.4
Private	165	42	88	35	71.8	25.5	53.3	21.2
Plains	161	32	112	17	100.0	19.9	69.6	10.5
Public	62	10	46	6	38.5	16.1	74.2	9.7
Private	99	22	66	11	61.5	22.2	66.7	11.1
Southeast	318	72	190	56	100.0	22.7	59.7	17.6
Public	135	30	88	17	42.5	22.2	65.2	12.6
Private	183	42	102	39	57.5	23.0	55.7	21.3
Southwest	118	31	74	13	100.0	26.3	62.7	11.0
Public	70	14	47	9	59.3	20.0	67.1	12.9
Private	48	17	27	4	40.7	35.4	56.3	8.3
Rocky Mountains	35	6	23	6	100.0	17.1	65.8	17.1
Public	22	6	13	3	62.9	27.3	59.1	13.6
Private	13	0	10	3	37.1	0.0	76.9	23.1

Table 18.—Number and percent of institutions employing 11- or 12-month faculty contracts, by region and control: Aggregate United States, 1960—Continued

Region and control	Number of institutions				Percent of institutions			
	Total	Yes	No	No answer	Total	Yes	No	No answer
Far West	156	22	115	19	100.0	14.1	73.7	12.2
Public	83	0	76	7	53.2	0.0	91.6	8.4
Private	73	22	39	12	46.8	30.1	53.4	16.5
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	2	7	1	100.0	20.0	70.0	10.0
Public	5	0	5	0	50.0	0.0	100.0	0.0
Private	5	2	2	1	50.0	40.0	40.0	20.0
Land-grant institutions	71	13	53	5	100.0	18.3	74.7	7.0

Table 19.—Number and percent of institutions whose summer session salaries were estimated to be higher than equal to, or lower than regular session salaries, by region: Aggregate United States, 1960

Region	Number of institutions					Percent of institutions				
	Total	Higher	Equal	Lower	No answer	Total	Higher	Equal	Lower	No answer
Aggregate United States	**1,369**	**25**	**644**	**514**	**186**	**100**	**1.8**	**47.0**	**37.6**	**13.6**
New England	97	5	51	22	19	100	5.1	52.6	22.7	19.6
Mideast	244	6	122	74	42	100	2.5	50.0	30.3	17.2
Great Lakes	230	3	119	67	41	100	1.3	51.7	29.2	17.8
Plains	161	1	68	77	15	100	.6	42.3	47.8	9.3
Southeast	318	6	129	145	38	100	1.9	40.6	45.6	11.9
Southwest	118	1	64	44	9	100	.9	54.2	37.3	7.6
Rocky Mountains	35	1	11	19	4	100	2.9	31.4	54.3	11.4
Far West	156	1	73	65	17	100	.6	46.8	41.7	10.9
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	1	7	1	1	100	10.0	70.0	10.0	10.0

Table 20.—Number of institutions whose summer session salaries were estimated to be higher than, equal to, or lower than regular-session salaries, by type, enrollment size, and control:[1] Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution and enrollment size	Public institutions					Private institutions				
	Total institutions	Higher	Equal	Lower	No answer	Total institutions	Higher	Equal	Lower	No answer
Aggregate United States	**523**	**10**	**233**	**245**	**35**	**846**	**15**	**411**	**269**	**151**
4-year institutions										
Universities	89	3	45	37	4	56	1	29	23	3
1,000 to 2,499	3	------	1	2	------	1	------	1	------	------
2,500 to 4,999	14	------	8	6	------	11	------	6	5	------
5,000 to 9,999	33	1	12	18	2	22	1	12	6	3
10,000 to 19,999	27	1	16	8	2	20	------	8	12	------
20,000 or more	12	1	8	3	------	2	------	2	------	------
Liberal arts colleges	82	1	42	37	2	510	10	218	204	78
Below 200	------	------	------	------	------	16	------	9	3	4
200 to 499	1	------	------	1	------	103	1	49	28	25
500 to 999	13	------	6	5	2	186	2	81	75	28
1,000 to 2,499	27	------	15	12	------	172	7	68	81	16
2,500 to 4,999	22	1	15	6	------	21	------	9	11	1
5,000 to 9,999	9	------	4	5	------	11	------	2	5	4
10,000 to 19,999	10	------	2	8	------	1	------	------	1	------

See footnote at end of table.

Table 20.—Number of institutions whose summer session salaries were estimated to be higher than, equal to, or lower than regular-session salaries, by type, enrollment size, and control:[1] Aggregate United States, 1960—Continued

Type of institution and enrollment size	Public institutions					Private institutions				
	Total institutions	Higher	Equal	Lower	No answer	Total institutions	Higher	Equal	Lower	No answer
4-year institutions—Continued										
Independently organized professional schools:										
Teachers colleges	154	4	77	66	7	27	------	19	2	6
Below 200	4	1	1	2	------	7	------	4	------	3
200 to 499	------	------	------	------	------	12	------	10	------	2
500 to 999	25	2	13	10	------	6	------	3	2	1
1,000 to 2,499	71	1	31	33	6	2	------	2	------	------
2,500 to 4,999	46	------	27	18	1	------	------	------	------	------
5,000 to 9,999	8	------	5	3	------	------	------	------	------	------
Technological schools	12	------	7	5	------	21	------	19	------	2
200 to 499	1	------	1	------	------	2	------	2	------	------
500 to 999	2	------	2	------	------	2	------	2	------	------
1,000 to 2,499	4	------	3	1	------	9	------	9	------	------
2,500 to 4,999	3	------	1	2	------	3	------	1	------	2
5,000 to 9,999	2	------	------	2	------	5	------	5	------	------
Theological and religious schools	------	------	------	------	------	62	------	31	14	17
Below 200	------	------	------	------	------	25	------	11	5	9
200 to 499	------	------	------	------	------	28	------	16	5	7
500 to 999	------	------	------	------	------	7	------	4	3	------
1,000 to 2,499	------	------	------	------	------	2	------	------	1	1
Art schools	------	------	------	------	------	32	2	19	2	9
Below 200	------	------	------	------	------	11	------	6	------	5
200 to 499	------	------	------	------	------	13	------	7	2	4
500 to 999	------	------	------	------	------	6	2	4	------	------
1,000 to 2,499	------	------	------	------	------	2	------	2	------	------
Other	3	------	2	1	------	33	------	18	6	9
Below 200	------	------	------	------	------	4	------	3	------	1
200 to 499	------	------	------	------	------	13	------	9	2	2
500 to 999	1	------	1	------	------	7	------	2	1	4
1,000 to 2,499	------	------	------	------	------	6	------	3	1	2
2,500 to 4,999	2	------	1	1	------	3	------	1	2	------
2-year institutions										
Junior colleges	178	2	58	98	20	82	2	41	18	21
Below 200	10	------	5	3	2	33	1	18	2	12
200 to 499	40	1	12	24	3	24	------	9	10	5
500 to 999	45	------	14	23	8	17	1	12	3	1
1,000 to 2,499	44	1	14	24	5	8	------	2	3	3
2,500 to 4,999	25	------	5	19	1	------	------	------	------	------
5,000 to 9,999	10	------	5	4	1	------	------	------	------	------
10,000 to 19,999	3	------	2	1	------	------	------	------	------	------
20,000 or more	1	------	1	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Technical institutes	3	------	1	1	1	11	------	10	------	1
Below 200	------	------	------	------	------	3	------	2	------	1
200 to 499	------	------	------	------	------	1	------	1	------	------
500 to 999	------	------	------	------	------	1	------	1	------	------
1,000 to 2,499	2	------	1	------	1	6	------	6	------	------
2,500 to 4,999	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
5,000 to 9,999	1	------	------	1	------	------	------	------	------	------

See footnote at end of table.

Table 20.—Number of institutions whose summer session salaries were estimated to be higher than, equal to, or lower than regular-session salaries, by type, enrollment size, and control:[1] Aggregate United States, 1960—Continued

Type of institution and enrollment size	Public institutions					Private institutions				
	Total institutions	Higher	Equal	Lower	No answer	Total institutions	Higher	Equal	Lower	No answer
2-year institutions—Continued										
Semiprofessional schools	2	------	1	------	1	12	------	7	------	5
Below 200	------	------	------	------	------	3	------	1	------	2
200 to 499	------	------	------	------	------	5	------	3	------	2
500 to 999	1	------	------	------	1	3	------	2	------	1
1,000 to 2,499	------	------	------	------	------	1	------	1	------	------
2,500 to 4,999	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
5,000 to 9,999	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
10,000 to 19,999	1	------	1	------	------	------	------	------	------	------

[1] Based on 1961 fall enrollment.

Table 21.—Data for 118 institutions where summer session salaries were a fixed percentage of regular-session salaries, by control, length of term, and average teaching load: 1960

Percent of regular session salaries	Average full-time teaching load, credit hours[1]	Length of term, weeks	Institutions where summer session salaries were fixed percent of regular-session salaries	
			Publicly controlled	Privately controlled
7½	6	5	2	2
8½	6	6	1	0
10	5	4	0	1
10	6	5	2	0
10	6	6	0	3
10	15	8	2	0
11	6	6	10	5
12	5	5	1	0
12	6	6	6	1
12	6	8	0	1
12	10	10	1	0
14	6	6	3	0
15	6	5	1	0
15	9q	6	1	0
15	9	8	1	0
15	12	5	3	0
16	4	6	0	1
16	6	5	1	0
16	6	6	6	2
16	8	6	2	1
16	8 (2q)	8	4	2
16	9	5	0	1
16	12	8	2	0
17	8	8	2	0
17	10	6	1	0
18	6	8	1	0
18	9	8	2	0
18	9	9	0	1
18	12	8	2	0
19	9	8	0	1
20	6	8	5	0
20	8	8	5	0
20	8	10	0	1
20	9	9	0	2
20	10q	8	1	0
22	6	8	1	0
22	9	9	0	2
22	10q	6	2	0
22	12q	9	3	0
25	6	6	0	1
25	9	9	1	1
25	12	10	0	2
25	12	11	2	0
25	15	12	1	0
30	12	11	1	0
30	15	9	2	0
30	15	11	4	0
33⅓	9	11	1	0
33⅓	12	11	1	0

See footnote at end of table.

[1] Credit hours are semester hours unless indicated by "q"; "q" refers to quarter hours.

Several institutions employed extreme modifications on the central idea of using annual salary as a base. Two colleges paid their teachers 2 percent and 2.15 percent respectively of their annual remuneration for each summer session credit taught, two more awarded 1/725 and 1/750 for each hour taught, and another paid 2½ percent of the regular salary as a week's summer session stipend.

It should be noted that specific limitations were occasionally imposed with this and other salary determination principles. For example, one State university paid its summer faculty an impressive rate of one-third of the regular salary, but established a ceiling of $2,000. Thus, any instructor whose academic year compensation exceeded $6,000 could not receive the established percentage. The ceilings reported ranged from $900 to $2,000, with the greatest frequency at $1,200 (5), and were employed in connection with several other methods of setting summer compensation.

In all, 156 colleges and universities, or 48.9 percent of those contributing usable answers, employed the regular year's salary as a basis for determining summer compensation in one way or another. This remains the most commonly used principle.

Table 22.—Data for 32 institutions where summer session salaries were a discounted rate of regular-session salaries, by control, length of term, and average teaching load: 1960

Percent of summer salaries as a discounted rate of regular salaries	Average full-time teaching load, credit hours [1]	Length of term, weeks	Institutions where summer session salaries were discounted rate of regular-session salaries	
			Publicly controlled	Privately controlled
95	9	6	1	0
91	8	8	2	0
91	18q	11	1	0
90	6	6	0	1
90	9	9	1	0
90	12	8	1	0
85	6	6	0	1
85	9	8	0	1
80	6	5	1	0
75	6	6	1	1
75	9	5	2	0
75	9	6	1	0
75	10q	9	0	1
75	16	11	0	1
75	18q	12	1	0
66⅔	3	6	1	0
66⅔	6	6	0	1
66⅔	9	6	0	1
66⅔	9	12	1	0
65	6	6	1	0
60	6	6	0	3
50	6	6	3	2
50	10q	6	0	1

[1] Credit hours are semester hours unless indicated by "q"; "q" refers to quarter hours.

A third method of determining summer session salaries was payment based on the number of credit hours taught. This method was employed by 13 publicly controlled and 27 privately controlled institutions (table 23). Table 24 gives data on 10 publicly controlled and 5 privately controlled institutions whose salary schedules were also based on this method. However, these 15 institutions varied the credit-hour compensation according to the rank of the teacher, thus using a range of payment for each credit hour taught. The stipends showed a wide range, varying from $50 per credit hour to $300. Comparisons cannot be made on this basis alone, for the number of hours in teaching loads and the length of the summer terms in institutions using this method differed. Instructors at institutions which paid only average amounts per credit hour might receive higher total incomes than those at colleges which had high credit hour rates but low teaching loads.[10] The greatest frequencies were reported for $100 per credit hour (9) and $125 (7). The most popular range for those institutions which differentiated by rank was $170 to $200 (4).

Table 23.—Data for 40 institutions where summer session salaries were based on credit hours taught, by control, length of term, and average teaching load: 1960

Payment per credit hour	Average full-time teaching load, credit hours [1]	Length of term, weeks	Number of institutions	
			Publicly controlled	Privately controlled
$50.00	15q	8	0	1
$60.00	6	6	0	1
$60.00	18q	11	0	1
$70.00	6	5	0	1
$75.00	6	6	1	0
$75.00	6	8	[2] 3	0
$100.00	3	6	0	2
$100.00	6	5	0	1
$100.00	6	6	0	2
$100.00	8	7	0	1
$100.00	9	7	0	1
$100.00	9	9	0	1
$100.00	15q	8	0	1
$108.00	6	6	1	0
$112.50	6	9	0	1
$115.00	6	6	1	1
$120.00	12q	5	0	1
$121.00	8	6	0	1
$125.00	6	6	0	2
$125.00	6	8	1	1
$125.00	8	8	0	1
$125.00	9	8	1	1
$135.00	8	8	0	1
$140.00	9	8	[3] 1	1
$150.00	6	6	0	2
$160.00	6	6	4	0
$200.00	6	6	0	1

[1] Credit hours are semester hours unless indicated by "q"; "q" refers to quarter hours.

[2] One institution added $4 to this sum for every clock hour taught.

[3] This institution paid faculty members $140 for one credit hour taught, $220 for two, $300 for three, and so on in increments of $80 for each additional credit hour to 8.

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[10] Precise comparisons of salaries at different institutions are difficult because of the variables involved. Those available are given in the attached tables, but some pertinent data were not requested in the questionnaire, such as the number and length of class sessions and the maximum student load per class or per instructor. Information on current salary practices may be found in W. Robert Bokelman and Louis A. D'Amico, *Higher Education Salaries, 1961–62,* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1962, OE–53015–62, Circular 683.

Table 24.—Data for 15 institutions where summer session salaries were based on credit hours taught and academic rank, by control, length of term, and average teaching load: 1960

Range of payment per credit hour	Average full-time teaching load, credit hours [1]	Length of term, weeks	Number of institutions	
			Publicly controlled	Privately controlled
$80 to $95	(2)	10	0	1
$100 to $120	6	6	1	0
$120 to $180	6	6	2	0
$125 to $150	6	6	1	1
$130 to $160	6	6	1	0
$135 to $250	12	12	0	1
$150 to $200	6	6	1	1
$170 to $200	6	6	4	0
$200 to $300	6	6	0	1

[1] Credit hours are semester hours.
[2] Not given.

A fourth widely used technique for establishing summer session compensation was the payment of a fixed sum, not apparently related to the regular-session salaries. Table 25 lists 14 publicly controlled and 11 private colleges and universities which employed this method in the summer of 1960 and paid all instructors the same amounts.

Table 25.—Data for 25 institutions where summer session salaries were a fixed sum, by control, length of term, and average teaching load: 1960

Salary	Average full-time teaching load, credit hours [1]	Length of term, weeks	Number of institutions	
			Publicly controlled	Privately controlled
$256.66	3	3	1	0
$400.00	8	8	1	0
$450.00	3	6	0	1
$450.00	9	5	1	0
$450.00	9	10	0	2
$500.00	6	5	0	1
$600.00	8	8	1	0
$600.00 [2]	9	9	0	1
$612.00	6	6	1	0
$700.00	10	10	0	1
$800.00 [3]	6	6	3	0
$804.00	6	6	1	0
$850.00	7	7	0	1
$870.00	6	6	1	0
$900.00	9	8	0	1
$900.00	9	9	1	0
$1,000.00	6	8	0	1
$1,000.00	15q	11	1	0
$1,100.00	10	6	0	1
$1,200.00 [4]	6	5	1	0
$1,250.00	12	11	1	0
$1,400.00	6	6	0	1

[1] Credit hours are semester hours unless indicated by "q"; "q" refers to quarter hours.
[2] One publicly controlled institution paid a base of $600, then distributed any excess of receipts over expenditures to a total of not more than 15 percent of the regular-session salary.
[3] One institution added $8 per contract hour to the base payment.
[4] For holders of the doctorate; all others, $900.

Table 26 shows 11 public and 6 private institutions which differentiated payments according to rank. The range was again wide, varying from about $257 to $1,500. For institutions which compensated all teachers the same amount, the greatest frequency was at $450; for those which differentiated their salaries, the $900-to-$1,500 range was most popular. Again, comparisons are difficult in view of the considerable variations in teaching loads and lengths of sessions. It may be ventured that publicly controlled colleges and universities tended to pay somewhat higher salaries, but their teaching loads were also frequently greater.

Payment of salaries in terms of time has increased greatly since the 1940 summer session. In 1960, three institutions compensated their faculties on a per month basis, while 18 remunerated them by the number of weeks taught, two by the day, and 20 by clock hours of instruction. The range of payments is quite wide as seen in table 27.

Table 26.—Data for 17 institutions where summer session salaries were a fixed sum, based on teacher rank, by control, length of term, and average teaching load: 1960

Salary range	Average full-time teaching load, credit hours [1]	Length of term, weeks	Number of institutions	
			Publicly controlled	Privately controlled
$325 to $400	10q	3	0	1
$400 to $450	6	5	0	1
$400 to $600	6	6	0	1
$500 to $600	6	5	0	1
$650 to $800	6	6	0	1
$650 to $800	9	8	1	0
$700 to $800	9q	6	1	0
$720 to $1,080	6	6	1	0
$750 to $950	6	10	1	0
$760 to $1,080	6	5	1	0
$800 to $1,000	10q	8	0	1
$900 to $1,500	5	6	1	0
$900 to $1,500	6	6	3	0
$1,000 to $1,600	7q	12	1	0
$1,050 to $1,500	11q	10	1	0

[1] Credits shown are semester unless indicated by "q"; "q" refers to quarter hours.

Table 27.—Data for 43 institutions where summer session salaries were based on hour, day, week, month, by control, length of term, and average teaching load: 1960

Amount and basis of payments	Average full-time teaching load, credit hours[1]	Length of term, weeks	Number of institutions	
			Publicly controlled	Privately controlled
Per clock hour				
$4. 70	15q	8	1	0
$5. 00	6	6	6	0
$5. 25	6	6	1	0
$5. 35	15	6	1	0
$5. 50	6	6	2	0
$5. 75[2]	6	6	0	1
$6. 00	6	6	3	0
$6. 00	6	8	1	0
$6. 50	6	6	1	0
$6. 56	6	6	1	0
$8. 15	18	6	1	0
$12. 00[3]	3	5	0	1
Per day				
$14. 00	4	9	1	0
$20. 00	6	6	1	0
Per week				
$50. 00	4	4	0	1
$100. 00	6	5	2	0
$120. 00	9	6	1	0
$125. 00	6	6	1	0
$125. 00	8	6	1	0
$160. 00	6	6	10	0
$160. 00	12	12	2	0
Per month				
$150. 00	6	6	0	1
$300. 00	7	8	0	1
$400. 00	6	6	0	1

[1] Credit hours are semester hours unless indicated by "q"; "q" refers to quarter hours.

[2] One institution paid $5.75 per hour for individuals teaching there their first year, $6 for second-year teachers, and $6.25 for third-year and beyond.

[3] For lecture hour; $10 per laboratory hour.

Two final, corollary, and minor principles for paying salaries should be mentioned. Seventeen institutions reported that compensation to their faculties depended directly upon tuition revenues, and could not be exactly stated in advance. Nine of these colleges were privately controlled, eight were public. In 11 of them, including all under public control, the entire proceeds of the session went to the instructional staff; the other 6 deducted amounts varying from 20 to 36 percent for overhead costs. In addition, six colleges and universities, four privately controlled, stated that payment to faculty depended upon the number of students, a variation in expression and not in method.

Relatively few respondents (70) included data on the payment of visiting faculty in the summer sessions of 1960. Of these, 41 reported that the visitors received the same salary as the regular faculty and 6 stated that the salary was the same but teachers imported from other campuses were given additional travel and expense allowances. Only one college paid visiting faculty less than the standard rates, while six said that their salary was subject to "negotiation."

Salary payments remain one of the continuing weaknesses in many institutions which continue to finance their summer sessions by the use of substandard compensation. A higher percentage of institutions paid the equivalent of regular-session salaries in the summer of 1960 than in the summer of 1940. Moreover, the differentials were slight in a number of instances. Many colleges recognize the unsatisfactory nature of their systems of compensation and are taking planned steps to change them. Many stated that, within a few years at the latest, their summer salaries would be at par with regular-session salaries. Thus progress has been made and will continue; but, until this trend is completely fulfilled, summer sessions will not be equal members of the higher education family financially.

Cross-References on Financial Practices

To this point, the analyses have been devoted to individual aspects of finance. Since some of the questions were related, a cross-reference of returns could be significant and revealing. For example, while 621 of 1,231 institutions had self-sustaining summer sessions, 669 of 1,183 paid salaries at least equal to those of their regular sessions. As there was a considerable identity of nonrespondents to both of these items,[11] it follows that a number of summer sessions paid stipends equal to regular-session salaries entirely from their own resources.[12] It should also be noted that while the incidence of compulsory self-sufficiency was greater among private schools than public (57.6 percent to 39.9 percent) so was the frequency of salaries at least equal to those of the regular terms.[13] Examples of the same anomaly appear in regional and type analyses. A striking instance is the Rocky Mountain area which was lowest, by a considerable margin, in both the incidence of compulsory self-support and the incidence of equal and higher salaries.

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[11] A sample of 400 questionnaires, including all types of institutions and regions, revealed an 80 percent coincidence of identical nonrespondents to the two items (32 of 40).

[12] The same sample mentioned above disclosed 41 self-sustaining summer sessions which paid equal salaries and 59 whose summer stipends were lower.

These facts suggest several possible conclusions, not necessarily mutually exclusive. One is that some financial officials employ great skill, or perhaps legerdemain, to equate summer income and expenditure. A detailed study of fiscal policies and techniques could be significant and rewarding. It is also apparent that summer sessions must have developed important new resources. Support for this conclusion appears in a cross-reference to the item on income from student fees and tuitions. Though 621 sessions had to be self-sufficient, only one secured all of its revenues from fees and tuitions, and 539 derived 76 to 99 percent of their funds from these sources. Finally, it is possible that earlier critics over-stressed the connection between poor salaries and policies of self-support of summer sessions, or that new developments have diluted the effects of this factor.

Whatever seeming contradictions appear, it is evident that financial practices improved considerably between 1940 and 1960. In the latter year, the great majority of institutions included their summer sessions in their fiscal planning and budgets. In general, students in the summer sessions of 1960 were directly paying a lesser share of the costs of their education than those in 1940 and, in more than a quarter of the institutions, benefiting from scholarship programs. On the other hand, many more colleges paid their faculties regular-year equivalent salaries in the summer of 1960 than in 1940. In such respects as these, the summer sessions of the former year had moved significantly closer to equality with the regular sessions; in many individual instances, they had achieved it.

The statistics which demonstrate improvement also demonstrate need for further improvement. If there are many scholarship programs, many more are needed, for summer sessions fall far short of regular sessions here. If 644 institutions paid summer faculties equally with regular-term faculties in 1960, 514 did not. It should also be remembered that since the information gathered is general, it can best be said that the major and detected movements have been in the right direction but much ground remains to be gained.

Summary

Financing has been a major problem in summer sessions because its inadequacies were fruitful in propagating other early defects. Though some deficiencies remain in many sessions, responses to the 1960 questionnaire showed that considerable progress had been made. For example, 78 percent of responding colleges and universities included summer sessions in their regular budgets. At the same time, 80.4 percent of those institutions responding allocated 15 percent or less of their educational and general expenditures to their summer sessions; and 66.2 percent spent less than $50,000 on instruction and departmental research. On the other hand, students were directly paying a smaller proportion of the costs of their education than was formerly true. Only one institution reported that all of its summer revenues came from student tuition and fees, and of those responding almost half, 47.3 percent, received 75 percent or less of their income from that source.

Salary practices varied considerably. The 11- or 12-month faculty contract, covering both regular and summer sessions, was used in 247 institutions, while 912 reported it was not. Also, 644 colleges and universities paid summer salaries equal to those of regular session, 25 paid higher salaries, and 514 lower. The last used several formulas to determine compensation, most frequently a percentage of the regular-year stipend, a fixed amount per credit hour taught, or payments based on time—month, week, day, or even hour.

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[13] These figures are based on responding institutions only, but it must be remembered that there was a considerable identity of nonrespondents as indicated in footnote 11 above.

CHAPTER V

Administration in the Summer Session, 1960

AMERICAN INSTITUTIONS of higher learning have achieved a fairly common pattern of administration for their regular 9-month academic calendar. Although this same pattern did not exist in many early summer sessions, as the historical sketch indicated, this was often a major weakness and probably contributed to other major weaknesses, for administration had tended to evolve in a haphazard and unpremeditated fashion.

Development of Summer Session Administration

At the turn of the century, the scanty available evidence shows that unofficial summer sessions privately conducted on college and university campuses by the staff were often administered, if at all, by a faculty member during whatever time he might have free from his primary interest of teaching. The entire venture was voluntary; faculty members decided whether to teach in the summer, and what courses and hours. Their compensation was the tuition received from those enrolled in their classes. The director collected and transmitted these moneys, kept the records, and maintained an acceptable degree of public order. In this connection, it often happened that the college whose facilities were being used insisted that he apply the accustomed rules and regulations. Since the summer student body differed notably from that of the regular year in such characteristics as average age, purposes, and enrollment of men and women, difficulties often resulted. The summer director had to enforce on his clientele regulations designed by regular session authorities for regular-session students and conditions, often with unhappy results.

Larger institutions had additional cause for confusion. Several of the various colleges or divisions of a university offered their own summer sessions, each separately constituted and directed, often at different times and without coordination or cooperation.

It is difficult to know when and how administrative procedures developed, but it is a plausible assumption that this occurred when colleges and universities absorbed the private, or semiprivate, sessions held on their campuses and gave them official sanction and direction. Regular and continuing directors were appointed, budgets were drawn up, statutes and fixed policies on such matters as programs, recruitment of faculties, salaries, admissions, and credits were formulated.

By whatever evolution administration developed, some degree of symmetry had succeeded by the 1930's. The survey of the 1940 summer session noted that policies were established and enforced by the same authorities as for the regular session in 290 (61.2 percent) of the 474 responding institutions, by special committees in 95 (20.0 percent), by directors in 53 (11.2 percent), and by "the staff" in 36 (7.6 percent). Where regular administrators did not conduct the sessions, public colleges and universities tended to center authority in directors and special committees, and private institutions and junior colleges more often relied on faculty direction.[1]

Thus the comparative orderliness which had overtaken the summer sessions of two decades ago was relative, not absolute. It fell well short of the degree of standardization which prevailed in the regular academic year, a further testimony of the differing status of the two sessions at that time.

The Director

While responses to the 1960 questionnaire revealed progress toward uniformity of administrative practices and structures in summer sessions, they also demonstrated that there still appeared to be greater variety than in the regular session. The majority of 1960 summer sessions were in the charge of an individual, usually known as the director or dean, a marked change since 1940 in the direction of uniformity.[2] Moreover, he was a person regularly employed, full-time, in all but 15 of the responding institutions. (See table 28.) But only one of the directors devoted his services entirely to the summer session, and it is important to know what additional functions the rest served in their various institutions.

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[1] *Summer Sessions*, op. cit., p. 80–83.

Here uniformity vanishes. Of 898 directors on whom information is available, 543 held other administrative posts at their colleges or universities, distributed as follows: [3]

Academic deans or vice presidents	344
Presidents	68
Deans of evening college and/or extended services	41
Registrars	36
Deans of education	20
Graduate deans	18
Deans of students or of personnel	6
Admissions officers	5
Deans of men	3
Business managers	2

The 355 directors not listed among the other officers of administration for their institutions presumably were faculty members assigned to this singular executive responsibility. There is thus no consistency in the selection of summer session directors, beyond the fact that most of them are recruited from the ranks of administration.

Table 28 shows that the majority of directors—81.0 percent of respondents—had one-quarter or less of their annual services allotted to summer session administration; only 2.8 percent were credited with 76 to 99 percent of their yearly time. There was only one dean who devoted all of his time to summer session administration. Universities were most generous in this respect, with 16.5 percent allowing over half of the director's yearly time to summer session functions. Their sessions, however, tended to be the largest and most diversified. Following universities, 9.1 percent of art schools and 4.4 percent of teachers colleges gave an annual time allocation of over 50 percent to their summer directors. On the other hand, not a single institution in several types of professional and technical schools did so.

There were distinct regional variations. The Rocky Mountain area (10.0 percent) and New England (8.1 percent) showed the highest incidence of responding institutions which allocated 50 percent or more of the director's time to his summer session administration; the lowest frequencies were in the Southwest (3.3 percent) and the Plains (3.9 percent).

There was less diversity in the lines of summer session authority in 1960. Table 29 shows that directors at 60.8 percent of respondents were responsible to the presidents of their institutions, to the deans in 25.8 percent, and to other and undesignated officials in 13.4 percent. There were no striking regional variations in lines of responsibility, but several variations between types of institutions. Responsibility to presidents was most frequent in technical institutes (91.7 percent) and teachers colleges (76.9 percent); and least frequent in schools of theology and religion (50.0 percent) and technological schools (41.9 percent).

One measure of summer session status might well be the proportion of yearly services which institutions credited to directors for their administrative activities. Presumably, these included the myriad of activities in preplanning and followup, as well as conducting the session itself.

The Advisory Committee

It would appear that directors needed the several sources of assistance available to them, including the advisory committees maintained in 604 summer sessions in 1960, or 48.8 percent of those responding to this item (table 30). It seems evident that this type of organization has proved useful, for its incidence has more than doubled since 1940 when 95 of 474 sessions, or 20.0 percent, reported the existence of such a committee.[4] In 1960, these groups were most prevalent among universities, 57.6 percent, where sessions were generally more difficult to conduct, and

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[2] At least 1,211 of the 1,369 individual sessions of 1960 had a director in charge.

[3] The 1960 questionnaire did not seek to identify other positions held by directors. The above list is derived from the *Education Directory, 1961–62, Part 3, Higher Education*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1962. Obviously many institutions with summer sessions neglected to list their directors in the rosters of administrative officers. It may be noted that this *Directory* lists only 862 directors of summer sessions representing only 42 percent of the 2,040 institutions listed. The corresponding figures from the *Directory, 1944–45* were 654, representing 38 percent of the 1,685 institutions listed.

[4] *Summer Sessions*, op. cit., p. 82.

Table 28.—Number of institutions whose summer session administrators were regularly employed by the institution; percent of yearly service given to summer session administration, by type of institution, region, and land-grant institutions: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution and region	Total institutions with summer sessions	Summer session director regularly employed full-time			Number of institutions by percent of director's annual time devoted to summer session administration							Percent of institutions by percent of director's annual time devoted to summer session administration						
		Yes	No	No answer	None	1 to 25 percent	26 to 50 percent	51 to 75 percent	76 to 99 percent	100 percent	No answer	None	1 to 25 percent	26 to 50 percent	51 to 75 percent	76 to 99 percent	100 percent	No answer
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Aggregate United States	**1, 369**	**1, 196**	**15**	**158**	**2**	**869**	**150**	**24**	**29**	**1**	**294**	**0. 2**	**63. 5**	**10. 9**	**1. 7**	**2. 1**	**0. 1**	**21. 5**
4-year institutions																		
Universities	145	136	1	8	0	58	48	12	9	0	18	. 0	40. 0	33. 1	8. 3	6. 2	. 0	12. 4
Liberal arts colleges	592	526	7	59	2	395	59	9	9	0	118	. 4	66. 7	10. 0	1. 5	1. 5	. 0	19. 9
Independently organized professional schools:																		
Teachers colleges	181	177	0	4	0	129	23	1	5	1	22	. 0	71. 3	12. 7	. 5	2. 8	. 5	12. 2
Technological schools	33	27	0	6	0	21	4	0	0	0	8	. 0	63. 6	12. 1	. 0	. 0	. 0	24. 3
Theological and religious schools	62	46	0	16	0	32	2	1	1	0	26	. 0	51. 6	3. 2	1. 6	1. 6	. 0	42. 0
Art schools	32	25	0	7	0	18	2	0	2	0	10	. 0	56. 2	6. 3	. 0	6. 3	. 0	31. 2
Other	36	25	0	11	0	15	3	0	0	0	18	. 0	41. 7	8. 3	. 0	. 0	. 0	50. 0
2-year institutions																		
Junior colleges	260	214	7	39	0	185	7	1	3	0	64	. 0	71. 1	2. 7	. 4	1. 2	. 0	24. 6
Technical institutes	14	12	0	2	0	9	2	0	0	0	3	. 0	64. 3	14. 3	. 0	. 0	. 0	21. 4
Semiprofessional schools	14	8	0	6	0	7	0	0	0	0	7	. 0	50. 0	. 0	. 0	. 0	. 0	50. 0
Land-grant institutions	71	66	1	0	2	27	23	8	5	0	8	. 0	38. 0	32. 4	11. 3	7. 0	. 0	11. 3
Region																		
New England	97	85	2	10	0	53	15	2	4	0	23	. 0	54. 6	15. 5	2. 1	4. 1	. 0	23. 7
Mideast	244	224	0	20	1	164	29	1	7	0	42	. 4	67. 2	11. 9	. 4	2. 9	. 0	17. 2
Great Lakes	230	197	1	32	0	148	23	4	5	0	50	. 0	64. 4	10. 0	1. 7	2. 2	. 0	21. 7
Plains	161	141	4	16	0	111	12	2	2	1	33	. 0	69. 0	7. 5	1. 2	1. 2	. 6	20. 5
Southeast	318	268	4	46	1	196	26	6	6	0	83	. 3	61. 6	8. 2	1. 9	1. 9	. 0	26. 1
Southwest	118	102	1	15	0	85	3	1	2	0	27	. 0	72. 0	2. 6	. 8	1. 7	. 0	22. 9
Rocky Mountains	35	30	1	4	0	15	12	2	1	0	5	. 0	42. 8	34. 3	5. 8	2. 8	. 0	14. 3
Far West	156	140	2	14	0	90	29	5	2	0	30	. 0	57. 7	18. 6	3. 2	1. 3	. 0	19. 2
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	9	0	1	0	7	1	1	0	0	1	. 0	70. 0	10. 0	10. 0	. 0	. 0	10. 0

Table 29.—Number and percent of institutions by college official to whom summer session chief administrative officer was responsible, by type of institution, region, and land-grant institutions: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution and region	Total institutions	Number of institutions where summer session chief administrator was responsible to the—				Percent of institutions where summer session chief administrator was responsible to the—			
		No answer	President	Dean	Other	No answer	President	Dean	Other
Aggregate United States	**1, 369**	**138**	**748**	**318**	**165**	**10. 1**	**54. 6**	**23. 2**	**12. 1**
4-year institutions									
Universities	145	9	70	30	36	6. 2	48. 3	20. 7	24. 8
Liberal arts colleges	592	47	313	177	55	7. 9	52. 9	29. 9	9. 3
Independently organized professional schools:									
Teachers colleges	181	8	133	30	10	4. 4	73. 5	16. 6	5. 5
Technological schools	33	2	13	12	6	6. 0	39. 4	36. 4	18. 2
Theological and religious schools	62	14	24	16	8	22. 6	38. 7	25. 8	12. 9
Art schools	32	5	16	5	6	15. 6	50. 0	15. 6	18. 8
Other	36	10	18	8	0	27. 8	50. 0	22. 2	. 0
2-year institutions									
Junior colleges	260	35	143	39	43	13. 5	55. 0	15. 0	16. 5
Technical institutes	14	2	11	1	0	14. 3	78. 6	7. 1	. 0
Semiprofessional schools	14	6	7	0	1	42. 9	50. 0	. 0	7. 1
Land-grant institutions	71	3	40	11	17	4. 2	56. 4	15. 5	23. 9
Region									
New England	97	12	55	18	12	12. 4	56. 7	18. 5	12. 4
Mideast	244	17	125	66	36	7. 0	51. 2	27. 0	14. 8
Great Lakes	230	27	111	58	34	11. 7	48. 3	25. 2	14. 8
Plains	161	9	97	38	17	5. 6	60. 2	23. 6	10. 6
Southeast	318	37	179	78	24	11. 6	56. 3	24. 5	7. 6
Southwest	118	10	70	27	11	8. 5	59. 3	22. 9	9. 3
Rocky Mountains	35	4	18	6	7	11. 4	51. 4	17. 2	20. 0
Far West	156	20	91	23	22	12. 8	58. 3	14. 8	14. 1
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	2	2	4	2	20. 0	20. 0	40. 0	20. 0

among teachers colleges, 54.0 percent, and art schools, 59.3 percent. They were least often found in professional and semiprofessional schools, technical institutes, and junior colleges where enrollments were frequently small. There were also differences between the regions in this practice. Those where over half of the institutions had such committees were Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts (60.0 percent), the Rocky Mountains (66.7 percent), and New England (63.5 percent).[5] The incidence was lowest in the Southwest (43.5 percent), and the Southeast (44.7 percent).

The composition, selection, and functions of these committees may be an indication of the degree to which summer session control was democratized, and of recognition that the staff has a vital interest in policy and conduct. As table 31 indicates, 70.8 percent of these committees in 1960 (384 of 542) included both administrators and faculty; 7.8 percent of respondents consisted entirely of faculty; and 21.4 percent entirely of administrators.[6]

The membership of these committees was more democratic than their method of selection. Appointment by the president, dean, or director was the most common procedure, employed in 233 of 417 institutions which gave information on this aspect. An additional 80 committees consisted entirely of *ex officio* members, and only 11 were completely constituted by faculty election. More than one means of selection was used for 93; the membership of 24 committees was partly elected and partly *ex officio;* and 44 were appointed and *ex officio.*

Most of the 417 institutions mentioned in the preceding paragraph also supplied the titles of their summer-session advisory groups. It is apparent that at least 147 of these were standing committees of the regular year continued into the summer. The titles most frequently mentioned were administrative council (40), curriculum com-

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[5] In the Mideast, over 50 percent of the responding institutions reported such committees, but only 47.9 percent of all institutions with summer sessions.

[6] Of the 604 institutions which reported advisory committees, 62 gave no additional information.

Table 30.—Number and percent of institutions with committees to advise chief administrators of summer sessions, by type of institution, region, and land-grant institutions: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution and region	Total institutions	Number of institutions with committees to advise summer session chief administrator			Percent of institutions with committees to advise summer session chief administrator		
		Yes	No	No answer	Yes	No	No answer
Aggregate United States	**1, 369**	**604**	**634**	**131**	**44. 1**	**46. 3**	**9. 6**
4-year institutions							
Universities	145	80	59	6	55. 2	40. 7	4. 1
Liberal arts colleges	592	281	269	42	47. 5	45. 4	7. 1
Independently organized professional schools:							
Teachers colleges	181	94	80	7	51. 9	44. 2	3. 9
Technological schools	33	12	18	3	36. 4	54. 5	9. 1
Theological and religious schools	62	30	19	13	48. 4	30. 6	21. 0
Art schools	32	16	11	5	50. 0	34. 4	15. 6
Other	36	7	19	10	19. 4	52. 8	27. 8
2-year institutions							
Junior colleges	260	76	147	37	29. 2	56. 6	14. 2
Technical institutes	14	6	6	2	42. 9	42. 9	14. 2
Semiprofessional schools	14	2	6	6	14. 2	42. 9	42. 9
Region							
New England	97	54	31	12	55. 7	31. 9	12. 4
Mideast	244	117	111	16	47. 9	45. 5	6. 6
Great Lakes	230	99	103	28	43. 0	44. 8	12. 2
Plains	161	67	83	11	41. 6	51. 6	6. 8
Southeast	318	127	157	34	39. 9	49. 4	10. 7
Southwest	118	47	61	10	39. 8	51. 7	8. 5
Rocky Mountains	35	20	10	5	57. 1	28. 6	14. 3
Far West	156	67	74	15	43. 0	47. 4	9. 6
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	6	4	0	60. 0	40. 0	. 0
Land-grant institutions	71	44	26	1	62. 0	36. 6	1. 4

mittee (27), academic affairs committee (27), and committee of division (or department) heads (15). In these 147 instances, the advisory committee may be considered an organic link between the two sessions, a minor factor of integration.

Perhaps the significance of the advisory committee inheres more in its authorized functions than in its method of selection and its composition.

Of the 604 institutions which reported the use of such committees, 580 indicated the duties which they performed (table 32). Over half of these (296) indicated they were advisory only, although a number of them also listed other functions, such as approval of programs, faculty selection, budget approval, and "other" responsibilities. The distribution indicates that these committees each had from two to three of these substantial powers and undoubtedly exerted a considerable influence on the course and conduct of their sessions. While more inquiry into this topic is needed, it would appear that they must have been of considerable assistance to the directors.

The Department Chairman

Departmental or divisional chairmen could also be of considerable assistance to directors by assuming the burden of detailed summer planning and organization within their specific segments of the institutions. This was a much more prevalent practice than the use of advisory committees in the summer sessions of 1960, when 865 colleges and universities (74.4 percent of the 1,162 respondents to this item) required chairmen to carry regular-year responsibilities into summer school, providing another link between the two sessions. There was relatively little deviation from the norm in this respect by regions, but considerable variation between types of institutions. Of those responding, 97.1 percent of universities, where departmental organization is firmly established and course offerings numerous, the chairmen performed their regular-year duties in summer as well. The incidence of this practice was also high in technical institutes and in teachers colleges, but relatively low in theological and art schools and junior colleges, where departments and even divisions are often small. (See table 33.)

Table 31.—Number and percent of institutions by composition of summer-session advisory committee, by type of institution, region, and land-grant institutions: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution and region	Total institutions with committee	Number of institutions with—				Percent of institutions with—			
		Both administrators and faculty	Administrators only	Faculty only	No answer	Both administrators and faculty	Administrators only	Faculty only	No answer
Aggregate United States	**604**	**384**	**116**	**42**	**62**	**63. 6**	**19. 2**	**6. 9**	**10. 3**
4-year institutions									
Universities	80	44	20	8	8	55. 0	25. 0	10. 0	10. 0
Liberal arts colleges	281	183	52	15	31	65. 1	18. 5	5. 4	11. 0
Independently organized professional schools:									
Teachers colleges	94	60	22	4	8	63. 8	23. 4	4. 3	8. 5
Technological schools	12	6	3	1	2	50. 0	25. 0	8. 3	16. 7
Theological and religious schools	30	22	2	2	4	73. 3	6. 7	6. 7	13. 3
Art schools	16	12	0	3	1	75. 0	. 0	18. 7	6. 3
Other	7	5	0	2	0	71. 4	. 0	28. 6	. 0
2-year institutions									
Junior colleges	76	48	17	6	5	63. 1	22. 4	7. 9	6. 6
Technical institutes	6	3	0	1	2	50. 0	. 0	16. 7	33. 3
Semiprofessional schools	2	1	0	0	1	50. 0	. 0	. 0	50. 0
Region									
New England	54	31	9	5	9	57. 4	16. 7	9. 2	16. 7
Mideast	117	69	19	17	12	59. 0	16. 2	14. 5	10. 3
Great Lakes	99	66	21	5	7	66. 7	21. 2	5. 0	7. 1
Plains	67	42	14	5	6	62. 7	20. 9	7. 5	8. 9
Southeast	127	84	25	3	15	66. 1	19. 7	2. 4	11. 8
Southwest	47	32	8	2	5	68. 1	17. 0	4. 3	10. 6
Rocky Mountains	20	10	7	2	1	50. 0	35. 0	10. 0	5. 0
Far West	67	45	12	3	7	67. 2	17. 9	4. 5	10. 4
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	6	5	1	0	0	83. 3	16. 7	. 0	. 0
Land-grant institutions	44	24	11	4	5	54. 5	25. 0	9. 1	11. 4

Table 32.—Number of institutions by functions of summer-session advisory committees, by type of institution, region, and land-grant institutions: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution and region	Institutions with advisory committee	Function of summer-session advisory committee: No answer	Advisory only	Program approval	Faculty selection approval	Budget approval	Other functions
Aggregate United States	**604**	**24**	**296**	**343**	**204**	**104**	**28**
4-year institutions							
Universities	80	7	56	23	13	8	3
Liberal arts colleges	281	9	130	170	103	57	8
Independently organized professional schools:							
Teachers colleges	94	2	39	59	32	13	12
Technological schools	12	--------	6	5	5	3	--------
Theological and religious schools	30	1	8	23	16	8	2
Art schools	16	3	7	8	7	3	--------
Other	7	--------	4	4	1	1	1
2-year institutions							
Junior colleges	76	1	41	48	26	10	2
Technical institutes	6	1	4	2	1	1	--------
Semiprofessional schools	2	--------	1	1	--------	--------	--------
Region							
New England	54	1	27	36	25	13	3
Mideast	117	5	67	57	33	15	3
Great Lakes	99	7	40	58	35	19	4
Plains	67	4	30	40	23	14	2
Southeast	127	5	63	71	37	23	9
Southwest	47	2	23	25	14	4	5
Rocky Mountains	20	--------	10	11	8	7	--------
Far West	67	--------	34	41	27	8	2
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	6	--------	2	4	2	1	--------
Land-grant institutions	44	1	36	10	3	4	2

Table 33.—Number and percent of institutions where department chairmen had same responsibilities in summer as in regular session, by type of institution, region, and land-grant institutions: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution and region	Total institutions	Number of institutions with same responsibilities of department chairmen for summer as in regular sessions: Yes	No	No answer	Percent of institutions with same responsibilities of department chairmen for summer as in regular sessions: Yes	No	No answer
Aggregate United States	**1, 369**	**865**	**297**	**207**	**63. 2**	**21. 7**	**15. 1**
4-year institutions							
Universities	145	135	4	6	93. 1	2. 8	4. 1
Liberal arts colleges	592	378	143	71	63. 8	24. 2	12. 0
Independently organized professional schools:							
Teachers colleges	181	135	35	11	74. 6	19. 3	6. 1
Technological schools	33	26	2	5	78. 8	6. 1	15. 1
Theological and religious schools	62	21	20	21	33. 9	32. 2	33. 9
Art schools	32	14	9	9	43 8	28. 1	28. 1
Other	36	18	3	15	50. 0	8. 3	41. 7
2-year institutions							
Junior colleges	260	119	81	60	45. 8	31. 1	23. 1
Technical institutes	14	12	--------	2	85. 7	0. 0	14. 3
Semiprofessional schools	14	7	--------	7	50. 0	0. 0	50. 0
Region							
New England	97	50	27	20	51. 6	27. 8	20. 6
Mideast	244	168	46	30	68. 8	18. 9	12. 3
Great Lakes	230	134	55	41	58. 3	23. 9	17. 8
Plains	161	98	40	23	60. 9	24. 8	14. 3
Southeast	318	212	53	53	66. 6	16. 7	16. 7
Southwest	118	79	21	18	66. 9	17. 8	15. 3
Rocky Mountains	35	23	8	4	65. 7	22. 9	11. 4
Far West	156	96	43	17	61. 5	27. 6	10. 9
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	5	4	1	50. 0	40. 0	10. 0
Land-grant institutions	71	63	5	3	88. 7	7. 0	4. 3

Summary

It appears that the administrative procedure of summer sessions in 1960 was still changing, seeking a yet unachieved pattern. It had attained some uniformity—nearly all sessions had directors who were full-time employees of the school and usually held other administrative posts. About 85 percent of them were responsible to the presidents or deans of their institutions. These were areas of comparative certainty and identity as contrasted with the situation as recently as 1940 when the individual session might have been under any one of four types of control mentioned above.

But there remained areas of uncertainty and anomaly. Though the director conducted the session, he was formally a subordinate responsible to another official except where he was also the president of the institution. Here the administration of summer session was distinct from and apparently subordinate to the regular session. More needs to be known of the functions of the director and of his relationship with the supervising official. What is the extent of the former's autonomy? Is his role essentially executive, clerical, or a combination of these? Does supervision imply that the interest of the regular session override the interest of the summer session in the event of conflict? Where the summer session administrator bears the title of dean, functions and relationships may be more conventional, though they are not presently clear in the light of the data revealed in this survey. A thorough study of this situation should reveal much about the status of the summer session.

Status appeared to be low in another aspect. Only 5 percent of American institutions of higher education in 1960 valued the administration of their summer session sufficiently to allot over half of the director's annual services to this duty, although many summer schools exceed hundreds of regular-year sessions (which have complements of full-time administrators) in the number of students, faculty, courses, and services. This suggests that many colleges and universities still hold their summer sessions in light regard as peripheral or auxiliary enterprises. This was apparently one of the serious remaining defects of summer sessions.

The status of the summer-session advisory committee also varied among institutions. This committee existed in nearly half of the summer sessions of 1960 and, in most instances, included at least some faculty representation; indeed, teachers probably outnumbered administrators in the 604 committees taken together. This might be taken as evidence of democratization, but the method of selection appeared authoritative, for most committees were constituted *ex officio* or by appointment. The basic intent of the committees may have ordained the manner of their composition. A group designed to give maximum assistance to the director might be arbitrarily chosen to insure the inclusion of those with the greatest interest, talent, and experience for the purpose. Where the committee was intended to give the staff greater identity in the undertaking, it might be entirely or largely elected.

Chapter VI

Faculty in the Summer Session, 1960

THE QUESTIONNAIRE in 1960 requested institutions to list the number, rank, and sex of faculty members employed for each term in the summer of that year. In schools with multiple terms, each teacher might be counted for each term he served, and the totals would include numerous duplications. To secure the most reliable data possible on the maximum number of individuals instructing at any given time during the summer, the ensuing tables and text focus on the main terms—which were also the only terms for 680 institutions—with brief comments on other terms.[1]

Number, Rank, and Sex of Faculty Members in the Main Terms

Respondents to this query numbered 1,301 institutions, or 95.03 percent of those which held summer sessions in 1960, and reported that 63,381 individuals taught in the main term that year. Partitioned by rank, there were 13,418 professors (21.2 percent), 11,601 associate professors (18.3 percent), 13,271 assistant professors (20.9 percent), 10,916 instructors (17.2 percent), and 9,118 in "other" ranks (14.4 percent).[2] There were 5,057 who were unclassified (8.0 percent of the total). Excluding the 5,057 who were not classified, there were 45,349 men (77.8 percent) and 12,975 women (22.2 percent). (See tables 34 and 36.)

It is interesting to note that the proportion of the faculties of certain types of schools in the total faculties of all institutions of higher education differed between regular and summer sessions. Thus in the summer of 1960, universities employed 42.6 percent of all faculty in main terms, liberal arts colleges 30.9 percent, and teachers colleges 14.5 percent. This is a marked contrast with the regular-year faculty (1955–56) which showed that universities had 55.6 percent of all faculty, liberal arts colleges 21.0 percent, and teachers colleges 5.7 percent.[3] The teachers colleges, in particular, represented a striking summer increase.

The variations in the proportions of ranks in the several categories of institutions (tables 34, 36) probably reflected the practices of some types of schools to eliminate faculty gradations or to denominate all as instructors. Thus, the entire faculties of technical institutes were listed under the headings of instructor, other rank, or rank not reported, together with 97.9 percent of semiprofessional schools, 94.6 percent of art schools, and 89.6 percent of junior college teachers. Among other types of collegiate institutions, the frequencies in higher ranks were much greater. The combined incidences of professors and associate professors was 45.4 percent for teachers colleges, 44.1 percent for universities, 40.7 percent for theological schools, and 39.7 percent for liberal arts colleges. As will be noted later, these percents by rank are quite close to those of the regular year. Tables 35 and 36 show that the only important regional variations came for the rank of professor, where the proportion ranged from 15.3 percent of all faculty in the Far West to 26.4 percent in the Southwest.

The percent of women in the summer session faculties of 1960 main terms (22.2 percent) shows a slight decline with the latest comparable returns from the summer session of 1955 (24.6 percent) and the academic year 1955–56 (23.0 percent), consistent with a slow but steady trend since 1949–

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[1] See definition of "main term," ch. I.

[2] This category would include such groups as administrators who were also teaching but without faculty designation, graduate assistants, and assistant instructors.

[3] *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States 1954–56, Chapter 4, Section I, Statistics of Higher Education: 1955–56, Faculty, Students, and Degrees*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1958, p. 29. Proportions of faculty by rank in the 1955 summer session were remarkably similar to those of 1960.

50.[4] There are variations by control, type of institution, and region. Excluding those not classified, the 26.7 percent of women in faculties of privately controlled institutions was well above the 19.5 percent reported for public colleges and universities. In several categories of technical and professional schools, women constituted less than 6 percent of the faculties, but were 32.0 percent in liberal arts colleges, 27.1 percent in teachers colleges, and 25.3 percent in junior colleges. The range by regions was from 40.8 percent in Alaska-Hawaii-outlying parts (9 institutions) to 16.8 percent in the Rocky Mountains.[5]

Number, Rank, and Sex of Faculty Members in the Second and Third Terms

Four hundred and forty-five institutions held second terms in the summer of 1960, 135 had three, and 108 had four or more. For reasons stated, the study will not present complete data beyond the first term, but a sample of 81 second terms and 14 third terms, representing most types and all regions, permits some tentative analyses.[6]

It is apparent that multiple-term summer sessions are generally in the larger institutions. The average number of faculty members of all schools for their main terms in the summer of 1960 was 46.6; the average for the sample was 74.4. It is also evident, with a few exceptions, that there was a sharp decline from the first to the second term; the number of second-term faculty was only 57.3 percent of that of the first term among the colleges and universities sampled. The third terms, however, more nearly held their own with the second. Faculty members in the 14 institutions examined dropped from 296 to 259 between these terms, or 12.5 percent.

Rank and Highest Earned Degrees

Attempts to measure the quality of faculties and instruction are not popular with those persons under scrutiny, and risk imprecision in a difficult undertaking where the subjective often intrudes. There is, however, reason to undertake the task in this study. Earlier summer session faculties were often criticized as being clearly inferior to those of regular sessions.[7] It is important to know, if possible, whether this criticism has validity today.

Two overlapping criteria often appear among those used to measure the quality of teachers and their teaching—earned degrees and experience—usually measured by rank attained.

If there is, indeed, a positive correlation between rank and quality, the summer session of 1960 compared favorably with the regular-year faculty of 1959–60.[8] Although the differences were slight, perhaps insignificant, the percent of summer faculty in senior ranks was above that of regular-year faculty in universities, liberal arts colleges, and particularly teachers colleges. This comparison of percentages of classified faculty in regular session 1959–60 and the summer session 1960 is shown in the tabulation below.[9]

Faculty rank and type of institution	*Percent* *Faculty, regular session 1959–60*	 *Faculty, summer session 1960*
Professor (total)	**25. 9**	**28. 2**
Universities	29. 2	31. 3
Liberal arts colleges	23. 7	25. 3
Teachers colleges	20. 9	25. 7
Associate professor (total)	**24. 2**	**24. 6**
Universities	24. 8	24. 2
Liberal arts colleges	23. 3	23. 7
Teachers colleges	24. 2	27. 3
Assistant professor (total)	**31. 2**	**28. 0**
Universities	28. 9	25. 5
Liberal arts colleges	32. 4	29. 4
Teachers colleges	35. 9	32. 3
Instructors (total)	**18. 7**	**19. 2**
Universities	17. 1	19. 0
Liberal arts colleges	20. 6	21. 6
Teachers colleges	19. 0	14. 7
Two highest ranks (total)	**50. 1**	**52. 8**
Universities	54. 0	55. 5
Liberal arts colleges	47. 0	49. 0
Teachers colleges	45. 1	53. 0

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[4] Ibid., p. 29.

[5] Figures from which percentages were derived exclude unclassified personnel.

[6] No attempt was made to carry the analysis beyond the third term.

[7] See, for example, Judd, op. cit., p. 68–73.

[8] W. Robert Bokelman and Louis D'Amico, "A Comparison of 1959–60 Average Salaries of Selected Faculty Groups," *College and University*, vol. 36, No. 3, Spring 1961, p. 315. (The category of "other" ranks was not included in this study or in the present comparison.

[9] It is not contended here that rank and earned degree are the only measures of quality, but they are relatively objective and widely accepted as significant.

Table 34.—Number of faculty members in main term of summer session, by rank, sex, type of institution, control, and land-grant institutions: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type and control of institution	Total institutions	Institutions answering	Number of faculty members											
			Total all ranks	Professors		Associate Professors		Assistant Professors		Instructors		Others		Classification not reported
				Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Aggregate United States	**1, 369**	**1, 301**	**63, 381**	**11, 811**	**1, 607**	**9, 445**	**2, 156**	**10, 146**	**3, 125**	**7, 455**	**3, 461**	**6, 492**	**2, 626**	**5, 057**
Public	523	509	38, 351	7, 587	833	6, 171	1, 273	6, 767	1, 996	4, 417	1, 770	4, 023	1, 151	2, 363
Private	846	792	25, 030	4, 224	774	3, 274	883	3, 379	1, 129	3, 038	1, 691	2, 469	1, 475	2, 694
4-year institutions														
Universities	145	138	26, 989	6, 209	498	4, 542	641	4, 551	912	3, 090	970	3, 431	857	1, 288
Public	89	86	18, 976	4, 396	320	3, 165	441	3, 125	668	1, 968	641	2, 539	562	1, 151
Private	56	52	8, 013	1, 813	178	1, 377	200	1, 426	244	1, 122	329	892	295	137
Liberal arts colleges	592	575	19, 592	3, 270	745	2, 818	945	3, 289	1, 379	1, 845	1, 594	1, 075	1, 150	1, 482
Public	82	82	6, 849	1, 315	209	1, 213	322	1, 685	544	640	377	326	202	16
Private	510	493	12, 743	1, 955	536	1, 605	623	1, 604	835	1, 205	1, 217	749	948	1, 466
Independently organized professional schools:														
Teachers colleges	181	176	9, 215	1, 742	288	1, 623	526	1, 771	774	677	486	505	269	554
Public	154	150	8, 630	1, 661	273	1, 573	494	1, 710	750	639	433	465	201	431
Private	27	26	585	81	15	50	32	61	24	38	53	40	68	123
Technological schools	33	32	1, 455	205	9	249	9	340	10	273	16	192	4	148
Public	12	12	525	104	4	130	1	164	5	79	6	32	-----	-----
Private	21	20	930	101	5	119	8	176	5	194	10	160	4	148
Theological and religious schools (all private)	62	55	474	146	7	32	8	31	5	46	4	78	2	115
Art schools (all private)	32	28	652	6	6	15	------	7	1	94	19	221	49	234
Other schools	36	28	631	106	6	80	5	75	10	125	13	64	1	146
Public	3	2	100	27	1	30	2	26	5	6	3	-------	-----	-----
Private	33	26	531	79	5	50	3	49	5	119	10	64	1	146

2-year institutions														
Junior colleges	260	247	3, 782	125	48	84	22	82	34	1, 160	355	684	264	924
Public	178	172	3, 102	84	26	60	13	57	24	1, 085	310	597	174	672
Private	82	75	680	41	22	24	9	25	10	75	45	87	90	252
Technical institutes	14	11	401	---	---	---	---	---	---	140	2	178	3	78
Public	3	3	73	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	14	3	56
Private	11	8	328	---	---	---	---	---	---	140	2	164	---	22
Semiprofessional schools	14	11	190	2	---	2	---	---	---	5	2	64	27	88
Public	2	2	96	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	50	---	46
Private	12	9	94	2	---	2	---	---	---	5	2	14	27	42
Land-grant institutions	71	69	13, 106	3, 052	225	2, 251	326	2, 191	532	1, 321	496	1, 538	327	847

Table 35.—Number of faculty members in main term of summer session, by rank, sex, region, and control: Aggregate United States, 1960

Region and control	Total institutions	Institutions answering	Number of faculty members											
			Total all ranks	Professors		Associate professors		Assistant professors		Instructors		Others		Classification not reported
				Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Aggregate United States	**1, 369**	**1, 301**	**63, 381**	**11, 811**	**1, 607**	**9, 445**	**2, 156**	**10, 146**	**3, 125**	**7, 455**	**3, 461**	**6, 492**	**2, 626**	**5, 057**
New England	97	87	2, 807	419	63	528	102	431	104	322	142	403	184	109
Public	24	23	843	168	14	145	23	180	47	98	48	76	37	7
Private	73	64	1, 964	251	49	383	79	251	57	224	94	327	147	102
Mideast	244	231	10, 451	1, 817	302	1, 338	336	1, 518	416	1, 266	544	1, 382	534	998
Public	57	57	3, 342	535	62	532	120	510	128	160	64	618	176	437
Private	187	174	7, 109	1, 282	240	806	216	1, 008	288	1, 106	480	764	358	561
Great Lakes	230	215	12, 933	2, 378	269	2, 050	365	2, 151	554	1, 347	556	1, 819	649	795
Public	65	65	7, 951	1, 745	149	1, 449	219	1, 439	369	846	230	1, 183	198	124
Private	165	150	4, 982	633	120	601	146	712	185	501	326	636	451	671
Plains	161	158	7, 551	1, 471	238	992	263	1, 077	402	745	477	825	368	693
Public	62	61	5, 221	1, 108	133	713	140	780	252	539	248	677	223	408
Private	99	97	2, 330	363	105	279	123	297	150	206	229	148	145	285
Southeast	318	308	13, 082	2, 839	380	2, 039	545	1, 950	834	1, 371	762	728	361	1, 273
Public	135	131	9, 166	2, 020	247	1, 494	376	1, 495	600	990	482	529	173	760
Private	183	177	3, 916	819	133	545	169	455	234	381	280	199	188	513
Southwest	118	115	5, 554	1, 291	179	908	225	1, 002	289	716	331	214	68	331
Public	70	67	3, 994	931	131	695	159	759	188	534	213	164	45	175
Private	48	48	1, 560	360	48	213	66	243	101	182	118	50	23	156
Rocky Mountains	35	32	1, 926	384	39	310	47	364	59	250	90	147	59	177
Public	22	22	1, 393	295	26	232	34	259	49	128	58	116	41	155
Private	13	10	533	89	13	78	13	105	10	122	32	31	18	22
Far West	156	146	8, 060	1, 103	125	1, 178	204	1, 518	366	1, 300	407	864	328	667
Public	83	79	5, 596	682	61	817	137	1, 220	275	1, 008	312	566	221	297
Private	73	67	2, 464	421	64	361	67	298	91	292	95	298	107	370
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	9	1, 017	109	12	102	69	135	101	138	152	110	75	14
Public	5	4	845	103	10	94	65	125	88	114	115	94	37	0
Private	5	5	172	6	2	8	4	10	13	24	37	16	38	14

Table 36.—Percent of faculty members in main term of summer session, by rank, sex, type of institution, and region: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution and region	Percent of institutions			Percent of faculty members										
	Total	Answering	Not answering	Professors		Associate professors		Assistant professors		Instructors		Others		Classification not reported
				Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Aggregate United States	**100.0**	**95.0**	**5.0**	**18.6**	**2.5**	**14.9**	**3.4**	**16.0**	**4.9**	**11.8**	**5.5**	**10.2**	**4.2**	**8.0**
4-year institutions														
Universities	100.0	95.2	4.8	23.0	1.8	16.8	2.4	16.8	3.4	11.5	3.6	12.7	3.2	4.8
Liberal arts colleges	100.0	97.1	2.9	16.7	3.8	14.4	4.8	16.8	7.0	9.4	8.1	5.5	5.9	7.6
Independently organized professional schools:														
Teachers colleges	100.0	97.2	2.8	18.9	3.1	17.6	5.7	19.2	8.4	7.4	5.3	5.5	2.9	6.0
Technological schools	100.0	97.0	3.0	14.1	.6	17.1	.6	23.4	.7	18.7	1.1	13.2	.3	10.2
Theological and religious schools	100.0	88.7	11.3	30.8	1.5	6.8	1.7	6.5	1.1	9.7	.8	16.5	.4	24.2
Art schools	100.0	87.5	12.5	.9	.9	2.3	---	1.1	.2	14.4	2.9	33.9	7.5	35.9
Other	100.0	77.8	22.2	16.8	.9	12.7	.8	11.9	1.6	19.8	2.1	10.1	.2	23.1
2-year institutions														
Junior colleges	100.0	95.0	5.0	3.3	1.3	2.2	.6	2.1	.9	30.7	9.4	18.1	7.0	24.4
Technical institutes	100.0	78.6	21.4	---	---	---	---	---	---	34.9	.5	44.4	.8	19.4
Semiprofessional schools	100.0	78.6	21.4	1.1	---	1.1	---	---	---	2.6	1.0	33.7	14.2	46.3
Region														
New England	100.0	89.7	10.3	14.9	2.2	18.8	3.6	15.4	3.7	11.5	5.1	14.4	6.5	3.9
Mideast	100.0	94.7	5.3	17.4	2.9	12.8	3.2	14.5	4.0	12.1	5.2	13.2	5.1	9.6
Great Lakes	100.0	93.5	6.5	18.4	2.1	15.9	2.8	16.6	4.3	10.4	4.3	14.1	5.0	6.1
Plains	100.0	98.1	1.9	19.5	3.1	13.1	3.5	14.3	5.3	9.9	6.3	10.9	4.9	9.2
Southeast	100.0	96.8	3.2	21.7	2.9	15.6	4.2	14.9	6.4	10.5	5.8	5.6	2.7	9.7
Southwest	100.0	97.4	2.6	23.2	3.2	16.3	4.1	18.0	5.2	12.9	6.0	3.9	1.2	6.0
Rocky Mountains	100.0	91.4	8.6	19.9	2.0	16.1	2.5	18.9	3.0	13.0	4.7	7.6	3.1	9.2
Far West	100.0	93.6	6.4	13.7	1.6	14.6	2.5	18.8	4.5	16.1	5.1	10.7	4.1	8.3
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	100.0	90.0	10.0	10.7	1.2	10.0	6.8	13.3	9.9	13.6	14.9	10.8	7.4	1.4

The 1960 questionnaire requested institutions to list the number of teachers in the summer session by highest degree earned, specifying the doctorate, master's, bachelor's and/or first professional, and "other." Over 1,200 answered some part of the question, but response for the last two degrees was obviously incomplete, as table 37 indicates.[10]

Table 37.—Highest earned degrees held by faculty in all terms of summer session of 1960: Aggregate United States

Degree	Number of institutions reporting	Total degrees	Men	Women	Specified degree as a percent of all degrees
Total	**1, 210**	**69, 124**	**53, 708**	**15, 416**	------
Doctorates	1, 049	29, 461	26, 035	3, 426	42. 6
Master's	1, 178	32, 125	22, 282	9, 843	46. 5
Bachelor's and/or first professional	802	6, 294	4, 466	1, 828	9. 1
Other	191	1, 244	925	319	1. 8

The data for doctorates and master's, however, were sufficient for cautious comparison with earlier surveys. A study of 171,651 regular-year faculty of 1,801 institutions in 1954–55 by Walter C. Eells showed that 33.5 percent had doctorates, 40.1 percent master's degrees, 14.1 percent bachelor's, 8.4 first professional, and 3.6 percent no degrees, the incidence for each varying considerably between the different categories of institutions.[11] Tables 38, 39, and 40 show that conclusions must be made with reservations, for complete returns would increase the percentages for bachelor's and/or first professional and for other degrees, and correspondingly shrink those for doctorates and master's. It is also true, however, that the proportion of doctorates among new faculty, employed since the Eell's study, declined from 28.4 percent in 1954–55 to 23.8 percent in 1958–59 and 25.9 percent in 1959–60.[12] The incidence of doctorates in 1959–60 and 1960–61 was therefore necessarily lower than it had been in 1954–55. The summer session faculty in 1960 thus compared as favorably with the regular-session faculty in the percentages of held highest degrees earned as it did in the percentages of senior rank noted above.

Proceeding from the general to the specific, available data also permit comparisons by types of institutions. Eells reported that accredited public universities had 39.8 percent doctorates on their regular-year staffs in 1954–55, and 36.4 percent master's; the equivalent figures for private universities were 46.0 and 25.4 percent, respectively. In the 1960 summer sessions, the incidence of doctorates and master's was 54.8 and 35.9 percent in public universities, and 51.3 and 36.8 in private. The 1954–55 returns for private and accredited liberal arts colleges were 33.8 percent doctorates, 46.9 percent master's. Table 39 shows 34.0 percent and 55.9 percent for 1960 summer sessions. Public, accredited junior colleges had 8.2 percent doctorates and 55.6 percent master's in the regular session of 1954–55 and 10.4 percent doctorates and 76.0 percent master's in the summer of 1960.[13] It is necessary again to impose the qualifications stated above for overall percentages of degrees, but they do not invalidate the tentative conclusions presented.

To move from probability to certainty, it is evident that the quality of summer session faculties has improved greatly since 1916. Judd's report on that year showed that southern colleges and university faculties had 22.6 percent doctorates and 29.0 percent master's in their summer sessions, southern normal and teachers colleges, 1.6 and 17.0 percent, respectively; the faculties of nonsouthern colleges and universities had 31.0 percent doctorates, and 25.0 percent master's, and normal and teachers colleges, 6.6 and 22.7 percent, respectively. Reference to the appropriate data on tables 39 and 40 will demonstrate the contrast and progress.[14]

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[10] Total degrees shown, 69,124, vary from the number of faculty listed by rank in tables 34, 35, and 36 because this listing and accompanying tables refer to all terms, and tables 34, 35, and 36 refer to main terms only.

[11] Walter C. Eells, "Highest Earned Degrees of Faculty Members in Institutions of Higher Education in the United States, 1954–55," *College and University*, vol. 34, No. 1, Fall 1958, p. 12, 15. Another study, National Education Association, "Instructional Staff Practices and Policies in Degree-Granting Institutions, 1953–54," *Research Bulletin*, vol. 32, No. 4, December 1954, p. 164–65, gave figures varying from those in the Eells survey: doctorates, 40.5 percent; master's, 49.1 percent; less than master's, 10.4 percent. This survey, reported in National Education Association Higher Education Series, Research Report, 1961, R 12, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Universities, Colleges, and Junior Colleges, 1959–60* and *1960–61*, May 1961, p. 10–17, was much more restricted in coverage than Eells' work and is less suitable for comparative purposes here.

[12] Ibid. See also National Education Association, *Research Bulletin*, vol. 37, No. 3, October 1959, p. 87.

[13] For unaccredited private colleges, Eells gives 17.6 percent doctorates, 30.5 percent master's, and for unaccredited junior colleges, 55.2 and 55.3 percent, respectively (page 15). The present study did not separate accredited institutions in processing the data.

[14] Judd, op. cit., p. 68–73. The survey of the 1940 summer session had no data on rank or highest earned degrees of faculty members.

Table 38.—Highest earned degrees of faculty in all terms of summer session, by type of institution and by degree: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution	Total institutions	Institutions answering	Doctorates				Master's				Bachelor's and first professional				Other degrees			
			Institutions reporting	Total	Men	Women	Institutions reporting	Total	Men	Women	Institutions reporting	Total	Men	Women	Institutions reporting	Total	Men	Women
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Aggregate United States	**1, 369**	**1, 210**	**1, 049**	**29, 461**	**26, 035**	**3, 426**	**1, 178**	**32, 125**	**22, 282**	**9, 843**	**802**	**6, 294**	**4, 466**	**1, 828**	**191**	**1, 244**	**925**	**319**
4-year institutions																		
Universities	145	128	128	15, 906	14, 549	1, 357	127	10, 712	8, 380	2, 332	119	2, 677	2, 083	594	40	314	245	69
Liberal arts colleges	592	538	524	7, 928	6, 554	1, 374	533	11, 165	6, 649	4, 516	367	1, 659	856	803	63	230	136	94
Independently organized professional schools:																		
Teachers colleges	181	171	166	4, 182	3, 638	544	171	5, 959	3, 858	2, 101	93	360	183	177	14	125	89	36
Technological schools	33	29	29	457	449	8	29	664	633	31	23	394	379	15	10	54	54	-----
Theological and religious schools	62	50	44	267	260	7	41	152	130	22	23	71	59	12	6	28	26	2
Art schools	32	25	16	35	33	2	22	193	136	57	21	184	149	35	13	143	82	61
Other	36	25	18	218	208	10	20	248	217	31	20	253	233	20	4	10	9	1
2-year institutions																		
Junior colleges	260	226	117	397	334	63	221	2, 920	2, 176	744	119	442	290	152	29	138	97	41
Technical institutes	14	10	4	65	6	59	8	70	67	3	10	206	203	3	7	95	93	2
Semiprofessional schools	14	8	3	6	4	2	6	42	36	6	7	48	31	17	5	107	94	13

Table 39.—Number and percent of doctorates and master's degrees held by faculty members in universities and liberal arts colleges, all terms of summer session, by region and control: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution, control, and region	Total institutions	Total faculty degrees reported	Doctorates							Master's						
			Number				Percent			Number				Percent		
			Institutions reporting	Total reported	Men	Women	Doctorates as percent of total faculty (Col. 2)	Percent of doctorates—		Institutions reporting	Total reported	Men	Women	Master's as percent of total faculty (Col. 2)	Percent of master's—	
								Men	Women						Men	Women
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Universities, Aggregate United States	**145**	**29,609**	**128**	**15,906**	**14,549**	**1,357**	**53.7**	**91.5**	**8.5**	**127**	**10,712**	**8,380**	**2,332**	**36.2**	**78.2**	**21.8**
PUBLIC	89	20,731	79	11,352	10,458	894	54.8	92.1	7.9	78	7,440	5,774	1,666	35.9	77.6	22.4
New England	5	558	5	300	284	16	53.8	94.7	5.3	5	211	162	49	37.8	76.8	23.2
Mideast	5	1,743	4	1,068	978	90	61.3	91.6	8.4	4	577	512	85	33.1	88.7	11.3
Great Lakes	15	5,194	14	2,989	2,773	216	57.5	92.8	7.2	14	1,713	1,377	336	33.0	80.4	19.6
Plains	12	2,730	11	1,686	1,550	136	61.8	91.9	8.1	10	878	701	177	32.2	79.8	20.2
Southeast	22	4,300	18	2,112	1,940	172	49.1	91.9	8.1	18	1,698	1,286	412	39.5	75.7	24.3
Southwest	10	2,256	9	1,142	1,061	81	50.6	92.9	7.1	9	918	764	154	40.7	83.2	16.8
Rocky Mountains	8	1,349	7	727	643	84	53.9	88.4	11.6	7	511	390	121	87.9	76.3	23.7
Far West	10	1,747	9	1,098	1,029	69	62.8	93.7	6.3	9	515	382	133	29.5	74.2	25.8
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	2	854	2	230	200	30	26.9	87.0	13.0	2	419	200	219	49.1	47.7	52.3
PRIVATE	56	8,878	49	4,554	4,091	463	51.3	89.8	10.2	49	3,272	2,606	666	36.8	79.6	20.4
New England	6	729	4	331	304	27	45.4	91.8	8.2	4	303	264	39	41.6	87.1	12.9
Mideast	21	3,758	18	1,945	1,678	267	51.8	86.3	13.7	18	1,411	1,104	307	37.5	78.2	21.8
Great Lakes	9	1,135	7	608	575	33	53.6	94.6	5.4	7	440	373	67	38.8	84.8	15.2
Plains	5	593	5	313	283	30	52.8	90.4	9.6	5	235	177	58	39.6	75.3	24.7
Southeast	6	783	6	429	399	30	54.8	93.0	7.0	6	219	177	42	28.0	80.8	19.2
Southwest	5	823	5	383	350	33	46.5	91.4	8.6	5	330	242	88	40.1	73.3	26.7
Rocky Mountains	2	498	2	185	168	17	42.2	90.8	9.2	2	164	131	33	37.4	79.9	20.1
Far West	2	619	2	360	334	26	58.2	92.8	7.2	2	170	138	32	27.5	81.2	18.8
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Liberal Arts Colleges, Aggregate United States	**592**	**20,982**	**524**	**7,928**	**6,554**	**1,374**	**37.8**	**82.7**	**17.3**	**533**	**11,165**	**6,649**	**4,516**	**53.2**	**59.5**	**40.5**
PUBLIC	82	7,614	80	3,383	2,911	472	44.4	86.0	14.0	80	3,698	2,489	1,209	48.6	67.3	32.7
Mideast	4	583	4	301	222	79	51.6	73.8	26.2	-----	227	141	86	38.9	62.1	37.9
Great Lakes	9	1,053	9	495	438	57	47.0	88.5	11.5	9	510	353	157	48.4	69.2	30.8
Plains	4	271	4	103	95	8	38.0	92.2	7.8	4	132	59	33	48.7	75.0	25.0
Southeast	37	2,448	37	819	697	122	33.5	85.1	14.9	13	1,498	940	558	61.2	62.7	37.3
Southwest	13	953	13	352	287	65	34.9	81.5	18.5	15	535	355	180	56.1	66.3	33.7
Rocky Mountains	2	32	1	4	4	-----	18.5	100.0	-----	1	23	14	9	71.9	60.9	39.1
Far West	12	2,260	11	1,302	1,161	141	57.6	89.2	10.8	11	768	585	183	34.0	76.2	23.8
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	1	13	1	7	7	-----	53.8	100.0	-----	1	5	2	3	38.5	40.0	60.0
PRIVATE	510	11,368	444	4,545	3,643	902	34.0	80.1	19.9	453	7,467	4,160	3,307	55.9	55.7	44.3
New England	42	937	34	372	284	88	38.7	76.3	23.7	37	432	239	193	46.1	55.3	44.7
Mideast	95	2,789	83	983	810	173	35.2	82.4	17.6	86	1,562	959	603	56.0	61.4	38.6
Great Lakes	92	2,740	81	859	655	204	31.3	76.3	23.7	82	1,649	801	848	60.2	48.6	51.4
Plains	73	1,610	68	457	320	137	28.4	70.0	30.0	67	975	446	529	60.6	45.7	54.3
Southeast	124	2,795	105	995	859	136	35.6	86.3	13.7	107	1,557	945	612	55.7	60.7	39.3
Southewest	29	663	25	214	180	34	32.3	84.1	15.9	24	390	238	152	58.8	61.0	39.0
Rocky Mountains	7	119	5	35	25	10	29.4	71.4	28.6	6	77	51	26	64.7	66.2	33.8
Far West	44	1,541	39	602	492	110	39.1	81.7	18.3	40	751	454	297	48.7	60.4	39.6
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	4	174	4	28	18	10	16.1	64.3	35.7	4	74	27	47	42.5	36.5	63.5

Table 40.—Number and percent of doctorates and master's degrees held by faculty members in junior colleges and teachers colleges, all terms of summer session, by region and control: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution, control, and region	Total institutions	Total faculty degrees reported	Doctorates							Master's						
			Institutions reporting	Number			Percent			Institutions reporting	Number			Percent		
				Total	Men	Women	Doctorates as percent of total faculty (Col. 2)	Percent of doctorates—			Total	Men	Women	Master's as percent of total faculty (Col. 2)	Percent of master's—	
								Men	Women						Men	Women
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Junior colleges, Aggregate United States	**260**	**3,897**	**117**	**397**	**334**	**63**	**10.2**	**84.1**	**15.9**	**221**	**2,920**	**2,176**	**744**	**74.9**	**74.5**	**25.5**
Public	178	3,235	83	336	291	45	10.4	86.6	13.4	155	2,460	1,916	544	76.0	77.9	22.1
New England	1	9	1	1	1	----------	11.1	100.0	.0	1	6	6	----------	66.7	100.0	.0
Mideast	9	77	6	14	13	1	18.2	92.9	7.1	8	54	43	11	70.1	79.6	20.4
Great Lakes	25	341	8	30	27	3	8.8	90.0	10.0	21	304	249	55	89.1	81.9	18.1
Plains	18	128	3	8	8	----------	6.2	100.0	.0	16	117	90	27	91.4	76.9	23.1
Southeast	34	476	12	48	42	6	10.1	87.5	12.5	33	387	293	94	81.3	75.7	24.3
Southwest	31	554	12	51	39	12	9.2	76.5	23.5	26	465	319	146	83.9	68.6	31.4
Rocky Mountains	6	90	2	11	11	----------	12.2	100.0	.0	4	40	35	5	40.4	87.5	12.5
Far West	52	1,549	38	170	147	23	11.0	86.5	13.5	45	1,080	874	206	69.7	80.9	19.1
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	2	11	1	3	3	0	27.3	100.0	----------	1	7	7	----------	63.6	100.0	----------
Private	82	662	34	61	43	18	9.2	70.5	29.5	66	460	260	200	69.5	56.5	43.5
New England	3	31	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	----------	2	16	15	1	31.6	93.7	6.3
Mideast	18	140	8	13	7	6	9.3	53.8	46.2	15	84	30	54	60.0	35.7	64.3
Great Lakes	7	70	4	9	7	2	12.9	77.8	22.2	7	45	22	23	64.3	48.9	51.1
Plains	9	67	5	8	5	3	11.9	62.5	37.5	6	38	21	17	56.7	55.3	44.7
Southeast	35	267	13	19	12	7	7.1	63.2	36.8	28	219	127	92	82.0	58.0	42.0
Southwest	6	27	1	1	1	----------	3.7	100.0	----------	5	25	22	3	92.6	88.0	12.0
Rocky Mountains	1	23	1	5	5	----------	21.7	100.0	----------	1	16	14	2	69.6	87.5	12.5
Far West	2	11	1	1	1	----------	9.1	100.0	----------	1	3	2	1	27.3	66.7	33.3
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	1	26	1	5	5	----------	19.2	100.0	----------	1	14	7	7	53.8	50.0	50.0
Teachers colleges, Aggregate United States	**181**	**10,626**	**166**	**4,182**	**3,638**	**544**	**39.3**	**87.0**	**13.0**	**171**	**5,959**	**3,858**	**2,101**	**56.1**	**64.7**	**35.3**
Public	154	9,926	146	3,978	3,481	497	40.0	87.5	12.5	147	5,530	3,684	1,846	55.7	66.6	33.4
New England	16	420	15	169	143	26	40.2	84.6	15.4	16	246	164	82	58.6	66.7	33.3
Mideast	34	1,784	32	792	691	101	44.4	87.2	12.8	32	965	681	284	54.1	70.6	29.4
Great Lakes	15	1,409	14	712	607	105	50.5	85.2	14.8	14	650	413	237	46.1	63.5	36.5
Plains	27	1,955	26	680	598	82	34.6	87.9	12.1	26	1,208	756	452	61.8	62.6	37.4
Southeast	36	2,295	33	760	667	93	33.1	87.8	12.2	33	1,446	952	494	63.0	65.8	34.2
Southwest	14	1,080	14	476	409	67	44.1	85.9	14.1	14	505	343	162	46.7	67.9	32.1
Rocky Mountains	5	482	5	174	169	5	36.1	97.1	2.9	5	264	226	38	54.8	85.6	14.4
Far West	7	501	7	215	197	18	42.9	91.6	8.4	7	246	149	97	49.1	60.6	39.4
Private	27	700	20	204	157	47	29.1	77.0	23.0	24	429	174	255	61.3	40.5	59.5
New England	4	7	1	2	2	----------	28.6	100.0	----------	1	5	0	5	71.4	----------	100.0
Mideast	7	90	5	19	14	5	21.1	73.7	26.3	7	67	14	53	74.4	20.9	79.1
Great Lakes	8	274	8	66	46	20	24.1	69.7	30.3	8	178	65	113	65.0	36.5	63.5
Plains	1	29	1	10	10	----------	34.5	100.0	----------	1	18	17	1	62.1	94.4	5.6
Southeast	3	209	2	96	80	16	45.9	83.3	16.7	3	89	51	38	42.6	57.3	42.7
Southwest	1	26	1	3	2	1	11.5	66.7	33.3	1	22	15	7	84.6	68.2	31.8
Rocky Mountains	1	20	1	2	1	1	10.0	50.0	50.0	1	16	9	7	80.0	56.2	43.8
Far West	2	45	1	6	2	4	13.3	33.3	66.7	2	34	3	31	75.6	8.8	91.2

Earned Degrees of 1960 Summer Session Faculties

The data in tables 38, 39, and 40 yield few unforeseen results in self-contained analyses of the faculties in 1960 summer sessions. The incidence of doctorates was highest in universities, 53.7 percent; teachers colleges at 39.3 percent were second; and liberal arts colleges third with 37.8 percent. In all categories, percentages were higher for public than for private institutions. Junior colleges were first in the frequency of master's degrees among their faculties at 74.9 percent, with teachers colleges second, 56.1 percent; liberal arts colleges third, 53.2 percent; and universities last with 36.2 percent. The percent of faculty holding master's degrees in public junior colleges exceeded that for private by 76.0 to 69.5 percent, but this was the exception as private universities, teachers colleges, and liberal arts colleges exceeded their public colleagues.

Teaching Load

Previous studies have given little attention to the matter of faculty teaching load, though it ranks with, or near, salary determination in importance to the instructor. The 1960 questionnaire asked respondents to give "the usual full-time teaching load in credit hours" for their faculty members. Some institutions did not respond to this question, and others gave faculty loads as a range, making this factor difficult to analyze. The 954 which reported usable information reflect again the wide variations in summer session practices. They reported standard teaching loads ranging from 2 to 32 hours for the 817 institutions on the semester system, and from 3 to 24 for the 137 using quarter hours (table 41).

Among the former, the 6-hour load was by far the most common, being employed by 389 colleges and universities (47.6 percent of semester-hour schools) or more than three times as many as the next most frequent, the 9-hour load used at 105 (12.9 percent). The third- and fourth-ranking loads were 76 institutions with 3 hours and 61 institutions with 8 hours. The 137 colleges and universities employing quarter hours had no affinity for a given teaching load comparable to that of the semester institutions for 6 hours. The most common quarter hour figure was 15 credit hours, reported by 29 institutions (21.2 percent), 14 of which stated that they considered the session a fourth quarter. The next in order of frequency were the 10-hour load (24) and the 12-hour load (20, including 14 fourth quarters).

The considerable number of institutions which reported very low or high teaching loads (below 3 credit hours, or above 12) are partly susceptible to explanation. Most of the former were at theological seminaries or institutions controlled by religious orders which confined the summer school to their own members. On the other hand, 142 colleges and universities, or 14.9 percent of the 954, had standard teaching loads of 12 or more hours. Of these, 42 indicated that they considered their summer sessions a fourth quarter or trimester, so that teaching duties would be the same as those of the regular year, ranging up to 15 hours a week. The majority of the remaining 100 had multiple terms, and it is a fair presumption that the teaching load reported is a combined total for the several terms.

Despite the lack of complete and comparative data, the suspicion arises that many teachers are more heavily burdened in summer than during the regular academic year, a practice which constitutes a serious danger to effective instruction. A common student complaint of early summer sessions was that they were intellectually robbed by ineffective teaching in summer terms. Thus to overload the faculty at that time would be to compound the felony. In this connection, it must be remembered that, in recent years, the greatly increased amount of graduate work offered at summer sessions has brought the added burden of supervision of theses and dissertations to the faculties of many institutions. Four hundred and sixty-four responded to an inquiry of whether they gave teaching credit for such work, 321 answering negatively and 143 affirmatively. Of the former, however, 210 gave no graduate work, so the question was not applicable, and the true response was 111 *no* (43.7 percent) and 143 *yes* (56.3 percent).

Table 41.—Number of institutions by average full-time faculty teaching load and by length of term in summer session: Aggregate United States, 1960

Credit hours—average full-time faculty teaching load	Number of institutions	Number of weeks in term											
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Below 3	23		5		9	6	3						
3	80			(3) 7	(1) 3	12	48	1	5				
4	47			1	3	(1) 10	(2) 23	2	(1) 2	1	1		
5	23			1	3	6	8	(1) 1	2		1		
6	389			4	4	(2) 68	236	(2) 4	62	6	1		
7	14						4	3	5	2			
8	73					(3) 1	(6) 6	3	42	4	(2) 3	(1) 1	1
9	125					(1)	(5) 14	(1)	(7) 36	43	(6) 9	1	2
10	33						(8) 1	(3)	(4) 1	(4)	(5) 3	2	2
11	5						(1)				(1) 3		
12	72						(1) 3	1	(9) 7	(3) 1	(5) 5	(2) 9	26
13 and above	70						(8) 1		(6)	(5)	(12) 3	(7) 4	(8) 16

NOTE.—Figures without parentheses indicate the number of institutions with semester hours; within parentheses, institutions with quarter hours.

Summary

The returns from the 1960 questionnaire should dispel any doubts, lingering from earlier days, relative to the quality of summer session faculties. In the main terms of 1960, 1,301 institutions reported using the services of 63,381 teachers. Excluding unclassified personnel, there were 27.3 percent with the rank of professor, 23.6 percent associate professors, 27.0 percent assistant professors, and 22.2 percent instructors or not classified. Incidences in the senior ranks appeared to be slightly higher than in the regular academic year.

In terms of highest earned degrees, 1,210 institutions reported that their teaching ranks were manned in the summer of 1960 by 29,461 individuals with doctorates, 32,125 with master's, 6,294 with bachelor's or first professional degrees, and 1,244 with other credentials. Comparative statistics indicate that the 1960 summer session faculty was fully equal to that of the regular sessions with respect to faculty preparation.

Teaching loads varied widely, ranging from 2 to 32 credit hours for semester-basis institutions, and from 3 to 24 credit hours for those on the quarter system. The most common load for the former was 6 hours, followed by 9 hours, and 3 hours; the greatest frequencies in quarter-basis colleges and universities were 15 credit hours, 10 credit hours, and 12 credit hours.

CHAPTER VII

Students and Programs in Summer Sessions, 1960

IT BELABORS THE OBVIOUS to say that summer sessions could not exist without students and programs, and would not have attained their present major importance without the remarkable increase of both. Thus the consideration of these topics in the final substantive chapter of this study is an inference of climax, not of last and least. As in the description of faculty characteristics, the ensuing discussion of student enrollments will focus on the main terms, with comments on other terms. The rationale for concentration is the same—analysis should be confined to unduplicated enumeration to achieve the greatest possible accuracy.

Main-Term Enrollments

Institutions were requested to state their enrollments by terms, by degree- or non-degree-credit programs, and by sex. The 1,326 respondents to this item reported that they had registered 960,994 students in the main terms of their 1960 summer sessions, as shown in table 42. This did not include participants in non-credit institutes and workshops. Of this main-term enrollment 761,156, or 79.2 percent, were in degree programs, and 54,681, 5.7 percent, attended without credit toward a degree. The 145,157, 15.1 percent, who appear in the "not classified" columns of tables 42, 43, and 44, were mostly students at colleges which did not keep enrollment records by degree curriculums and by sex.

The 137 universities responding to this item reported the largest total enrollment of any of the 10 types of institutions at 391,141, or 40.7 percent of all students, followed by liberal arts colleges with 276,899 (28.8 percent), teachers colleges with 148,585 (15.5 percent), and junior colleges with 90,094, or (9.4 percent). The various categories of professional and technical schools collectively accounted for less than 6 percent of main-term enrollments.

There were notable differences in the frequencies of enrollment for the several degrees listed. The bachelor's was the only "universal" degree offered in all types of institutions and was sought by 61.2 percent of main-term degree-registrant students, and over 34 percent of the degree registrants in each type of institution except junior colleges and technical institutes. In these, 3 and 8 percents, respectively, were enrolled.

Second in frequency of enrollment in degree curriculums were the doctorate and master's, listed together in the questionnaire. The fact that more than 1 student in 5 registered for graduate work made available in the main terms of all but semiprofessional schools and technical institutes testified to the growth and strength of advanced study programs in summer sessions. It must be mentioned that the listing of graduate students at the junior college level was not a mistake in responding or in data recording, but represented registration at a private western institution offering work applicable toward the master's and doctorate at a university of the same denomination. The incidence of graduate students was greatest at universities (34.6 percent), teachers colleges (27.8 percent), technological schools (14.9 percent), and art schools (14.0 percent).

Associate degrees were also nearly universal in availability, only art schools lacking this program. The incidence of candidates for the associate degree, 12.9 percent of all main-term degree program enrollments, was naturally greatest at junior colleges (96.9 percent), technical institutes (91.8 percent), and semiprofessional schools (66.1 percent). First professional degrees, attracting 3.3 percent of all degree-program registrants, had significant enrollments only in schools of theology and religion (43.3 percent), "other" independent professional schools (17.2 percent), and art schools (16.8 percent).

Table 42.—Number and percent of students enrolled in main term of summer session, by type of program, sex, type of institution, and land-grant institutions: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution	Total institutions	Total answering	Number of students enrolled						Percent distribution of total enrollment	Degree-credit enrollment as percent of total enrollment	Percent of degree-credit students	
			Total	Without degree credit	Not classified	Degree credit					Men	Women
						Total	Men	Women				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Aggregate United States	**1, 369**	**1, 326**	**960, 994**	**54, 681**	**145, 157**	**761, 156**	**417, 378**	**343, 778**	**100. 00**	**79. 2**	**54. 8**	**45. 2**
4-year institutions												
Universities	145	137	391, 141	24, 035	80, 331	286, 775	185, 534	101, 241	40. 70	73. 3	64. 7	35. 3
Liberal arts colleges	592	583	276, 899	10, 886	37, 479	228, 534	100, 028	128, 506	28. 81	82. 5	43. 8	56. 2
Independently organized professional schools:												
Teachers colleges	181	175	148, 585	7, 755	4, 442	136, 388	58, 813	77, 575	15. 46	91. 8	43. 1	56. 9
Technological schools	33	33	22, 260	627	3, 589	18, 044	16, 626	1, 418	2. 32	81. 1	92. 1	7. 9
Theological and religious schools	62	59	5, 386	563	1, 593	3, 230	2, 603	627	. 56	60. 0	80. 6	19. 4
Art schools	32	31	5, 509	2, 242	319	2, 948	1, 709	1, 239	. 57	53. 5	58. 0	42. 0
Other	36	33	9, 361	506	1, 821	7, 034	5, 525	1, 509	. 97	75. 1	78. 6	21. 4
2-year institutions												
Junior colleges	260	250	90, 094	3, 568	13, 265	73, 261	42, 059	31, 202	9. 38	81. 3	57. 4	42. 6
Technical institutes	14	13	7, 378	2, 300	672	4, 406	4, 101	305	. 77	59. 7	93. 1	6. 9
Semiprofessional schools	14	12	4, 381	2, 199	1, 646	536	380	156	. 46	12. 2	70. 9	29. 1
Land-grant institutions	71	69	170, 546	12, 172	35, 225	123, 149	79, 727	43, 422	100. 0	72. 2	64. 7	35. 3

Table 43.—Number and percent of students enrolled in main term of summer session, by level of degree program, sex, type of institution, and land-grant institutions: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution	Total institutions	Total answering	Number of students enrolled: Total enrollment	Number of students enrolled: Not classified	Number of students enrolled: Without credit towards degree	Level of degree program: Associate degree: Men	Associate degree: Women	Bachelor's degree: Men	Bachelor's degree: Women	First professional degree: Men	First professional degree: Women	Doctorate and master's degree: Men	Doctorate and master's degree: Women	Percent of total enrollment: Not classified	Percent of total enrollment: Without credit towards degree	Students by program level, and sex, as percent of all students in degree programs: Associate degree: Men	Associate degree: Women	Bachelor's degree: Men	Bachelor's degree: Women	First professional degree: Men	First professional degree: Women	Doctorate and master's degree: Men	Doctorate and master's degree: Women
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
Aggregate United States	**1,369**	**1,326**	**960,994**	**145,157**	**54,681**	**56,214**	**41,673**	**241,441**	**224,727**	**17,450**	**7,733**	**102,273**	**69,645**	**15.1**	**5.7**	**7.4**	**5.5**	**31.7**	**29.5**	**2.3**	**1.0**	**13.4**	**9.2**
4-year institutions																							
Universities	145	137	391,141	80,331	24,035	4,114	2,583	107,521	60,461	9,537	3,553	64,362	34,644	20.5	6.1	1.4	.9	37.5	21.1	3.3	1.2	22.5	12.1
Liberal arts colleges	592	583	276,899	37,479	10,886	5,507	6,415	76,794	103,072	3,240	2,126	14,487	16,893	13.5	3.9	2.4	2.8	33.6	45.1	1.4	1.0	6.3	7.4
Independently organized professional schools:																							
Teachers colleges	181	175	148,585	4,442	7,755	513	1,751	36,458	56,543	1,569	1,746	20,273	17,535	3.0	5.2	.4	1.3	26.7	41.4	1.1	1.3	14.9	12.9
Technological schools	33	33	22,260	3,589	627	356	2	13,655	1,069	277	2	2,338	345	16.1	2.8	2.0	-------	75.7	5.9	1.5	-------	13.0	1.9
Theological and religious schools	62	59	5,386	1,593	563	130	61	900	380	1,231	169	342	17	29.6	10.4	4.0	1.9	27.9	11.8	38.1	5.2	10.6	.5
Art schools	32	31	5,509	319	2,242	-------	-------	1,004	1,035	432	64	273	140	5.8	40.7	-------	-------	34.1	35.1	14.6	2.2	9.3	4.7
Other	36	33	9,361	1,821	506	761	307	3,434	1,114	1,154	59	176	29	19.4	5.4	10.9	4.4	48.8	15.8	16.4	.8	2.5	.4
2-year institutions																							
Junior colleges	260	250	90,094	13,265	3,568	40,878	30,110	1,149	1,036	10	14	22	42	14.7	4.0	55.8	41.1	1.6	1.4	-------	-------	-------	.1
Technical institutes	14	13	7,378	672	2,300	3,740	305	361	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	9.1	31.2	84.9	6.9	8.2	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------
Semiprofessional schools	14	12	4,381	1,646	2,199	215	139	165	17	-------	-------	-------	-------	37.6	50.2	40.1	26.0	30.8	3.1	-------	-------	-------	-------
Land-grant institutions	71	69	170,546	35,225	12,172	1,349	1,273	45,927	27,090	3,642	1,276	28,809	13,783	20.7	7.1	1.1	1.0	37.3	22.0	3.0	1.0	23.4	11.2

The data on table 44 indicate that there were some differences between publicly and privately controlled institutions in the frequencies of enrollments for the various degrees. One student in 4 in the former was seeking a master's or doctorate, as compared with 17.9 percent in the latter, while the incidence of candidates for associate degrees was over twice as great in public colleges and universities (15.8 percent to 6.9). The reverse was true for the bachelor's program, where private institutions exceeded public, 70.6 percent to 56.4 percent, and for first professional degrees, 4.6 to 2.8 percent.

Except for first professional degrees, whose incidence was low everywhere, there was also regional diversity. The Far West was consistently typical. Fifty-five percent of its 1960 summer session main-term degree-program registrants were in the associate degree program (the next highest, Alaska-Hawaii, had 16.2 percent) and, in turn, it resulted in the lowest frequency of bachelor's candidates, 29.5 percent, and the third lowest frequency of graduate registrants at 12.2 percent. The explanation for this extraordinary apportionment of students is the highly developed junior college system of California, with the State of Washington also well endowed in this respect. Statistical accuracy may not lead to understanding in this instance. The associate degree to which they immediately aspire is not the destination for many students but a halfway mark to the ultimate goal of a baccalaureate.

Aside from the Far West and Alaska-Hawaii, the associate degree was the objective of less than 10 percent of summer students in 1960; at least half of all degree-credit registrants in all but the Far West and Rocky Mountains were in bachelor's programs. The latter area, on the other hand, had the highest incidence of graduate students, 41.6 percent, closely followed by New England, 40.2 percent, with a wide interval to the third-ranking region, the Great Lakes, at 28.3 percent.

Prior to World War II, as the historical sketch indicated,[1] women dominated summer school enrollments, often at a ratio of 2 to 1. Thereafter, men were more numerous, and the 1960 main term continued this trend, enrolling 417,378 men, or 54.8 percent, and 343,778 women, or 45.2 percent, in degree-credit programs. These figures, taken with those for recent years, showed that the percent of men and women in summer sessions had achieved some stability, after considerable fluctuation just after the war. In 1955, the proportions were 53.0 percent men, 47.0 percent women; in 1957, 53.6 percent men, 46.4 percent women; in 1959, 52.7 percent men, 47.3 percent women. In this respect, the summer session tendency differed from that of the regular academic year where, from 1956 to 1960, the relative gain in women's enrollments, 43.8 percent, was notably greater than men's, 29.9 percent.[2]

The preponderance of men was not universal, however, in the summer sessions of 1960. The data in table 42 indicated that something of the past lingered in liberal arts and teachers colleges, where women continued to outnumber men, 56.2 and 56.9 percent, respectively. It is probably significant that these same types of institutions considerably exceeded all others in the estimated percentages of teachers and teacher-candidates in their enrollments.[3] Two regions also recorded an overall majority of women, Alaska-Hawaii with 54.3 percent, and the Plains with 52.8 percent; the latter was also highest in estimated incidence of teachers attending summer sessions.[4]

Comparisons with the more remote past are precarious, but important to ascertain trends. The unpublished study of 1940 reported that, in 1939, 73.4 percent of all summer students were at liberal arts colleges and universities, 24.3 percent at teachers colleges, and 2.3 percent at junior colleges. In 1960, the equivalent figures were 69.5 percent, 15.5 percent, and 9.4 percent.[5] Thus the percentages of college and university enrollments have remained remarkably stable for two decades, while junior colleges have grown considerably and teachers colleges have declined. The division be-

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[1] See ch. II.

[2] The figures for 1955 are from the *Biennial Survey of Education 1954–56*. Ch. 4, Sec. I, p. 136. Those for 1960 regular session from Office of Education Circular 652, Edith Huddleston. *Opening (Fall) Enrollment in Higher Education, 1960: Analytic Report*, Washintgon: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1961, OE–54007–60, p. 14. Statistics for 1957 and 1959 main terms came from unpublished Office of Education data made available through the courtesy and cooperation of Mable C. Rice and Wayne E. Tolliver.

[3] See ch. II, table 6.

[4] Percentages of women were not significantly different in public and private institutions, 44.0 and 47.0, respectively.

[5] Percentages of both years are based on total enrollments. The 1940 study concentrated much of its enrollment analysis on the 1939 sessions for which data were more complete than for 1940. It combined the various technical and professional schools under the single heading, colleges and universities; for this comparison, 1960 returns were grouped in the same way.

Table 44.—Number and percent of students enrolled in main term of summer session, by level of degree program, sex, region, and control: Aggregate United States, 1960

Region and control	Total institutions	Institutions answering	Number of students enrolled: Total enrollment	Not classified	Without credit towards degree	Level of degree program: Associate degrees: Men	Associate degrees: Women	Bachelor's degrees: Men	Bachelor's degrees: Women	First professional degree: Men	First professional degree: Women	Doctorate and master's: Men	Doctorate and master's: Women	Percent of total enrollment: Not classified	Without credit toward degree	Students by program level, and sex, as percent of all students in degree programs: Associate degree: Men	Associate degree: Women	Bachelor's degree: Men	Bachelor's degree: Women	First professional degree: Men	First professional degree: Women	Doctorate and master's: Men	Doctorate and master's: Women
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
Aggregate United States	**1,369**	**1,326**	**960,994**	**145,157**	**54,681**	**56,214**	**41,673**	**241,441**	**224,727**	**17,450**	**7,733**	**102,273**	**69,645**	**15.1**	**5.7**	**7.4**	**5.5**	**31.7**	**29.5**	**2.3**	**1.0**	**13.4**	**9.2**
All public institutions	523	507	615,914	81,234	32,623	45,352	34,199	148,600	134,374	9,780	4,461	75,793	49,498	13.2	5.3	9.0	6.8	29.6	26.8	1.9	.9	15.1	9.9
All private institutions	846	819	345,080	63,923	22,058	10,862	7,474	92,841	90,353	7,670	3,272	26,480	20,147	18.5	6.4	4.1	2.8	35.8	34.8	2.9	1.7	10.2	7.7
New England	97	90	38,468	8,749	2,441	714	287	9,110	5,400	285	520	6,785	4,177	22.7	6.3	2.6	1.1	33.4	19.8	1.0	1.9	24.9	15.3
Public	24	24	14,738	2,810	420	70	51	3,487	2,461	80	141	3,175	2,043	19.1	2.8	.6	.4	30.3	21.4	.7	1.2	27.6	17.8
Private	73	66	23,730	5,939	2,021	644	236	5,623	2,939	205	379	3,610	2,134	25.0	8.5	4.1	1.5	35.7	18.6	1.3	2.4	22.9	13.5
Mideast	244	238	160,003	33,959	11,304	4,744	2,483	43,256	35,798	2,447	1,028	13,655	11,329	21.2	7.1	4.1	2.2	37.7	31.2	2.1	.9	11.9	9.9
Public	57	57	64,510	11,146	4,913	2,947	1,418	14,654	16,572	318	511	5,746	6,285	17.3	7.6	6.1	2.9	30.2	34.2	.7	1.0	11.9	13.0
Private	187	181	95,493	22,813	6,391	1,797	1,065	28,602	19,226	2,129	517	7,909	5,044	23.9	6.7	2.7	1.6	43.2	29.0	3.2	.8	11.9	7.6
Great Lakes	230	223	188,571	27,208	11,017	8,029	4,554	44,102	45,935	3,098	2,014	25,897	16,717	14.4	5.8	5.4	3.0	29.3	30.6	2.1	1.3	17.2	11.1
Public	65	63	112,030	10,761	5,279	6,127	3,790	25,275	25,071	1,268	769	21,081	12,609	9.6	4.7	6.4	4.0	26.3	26.1	1.3	.8	22.0	13.1
Private	165	160	76,541	16,447	5,738	1,902	764	18,827	20,864	1,830	1,245	4,816	4,108	21.5	7.5	3.5	1.4	34.6	38.4	3.4	2.3	8.9	7.5
Plains	161	158	92,268	5,831	4,518	1,596	2,805	20,868	32,637	1,296	292	14,878	7,547	6.3	4.9	1.9	3.4	25.5	39.8	1.6	.4	18.2	9.2
Public	62	61	65,572	3,378	2,609	998	2,147	15,708	19,848	940	214	13,644	6,086	5.1	4.0	1.7	3.6	26.4	33.3	1.6	.3	22.9	10.2
Private	99	97	26,696	2,453	1,909	598	658	5,160	12,789	356	78	1,234	1,461	9.2	7.1	2.7	2.9	23.1	57.3	1.6	.4	5.5	6.5
Southeast	318	312	193,273	10,608	5,520	8,218	5,772	66,102	57,425	6,031	1,438	18,383	13,776	5.5	2.9	4.6	3.3	37.3	32.4	3.4	.8	10.4	7.8
Public	135	131	134,550	3,741	3,303	4,416	2,589	49,707	39,051	4,694	850	15,483	10,716	2.8	2.5	3.5	2.0	39.0	30.6	3.7	.7	12.1	8.4
Private	183	181	58,723	6,867	2,217	3,802	3,183	16,395	18,374	1,337	588	2,900	3,060	11.7	3.8	7.7	6.4	33.0	37.0	2.7	1.2	5.8	6.2
Southwest	118	112	97,544	7,011	1,845	4,657	2,701	35,046	24,484	1,903	1,102	10,563	8,232	7.2	1.9	5.3	3.0	39.5	27.6	2.2	1.2	11.9	9.3
Public	70	65	72,564	5,261	1,393	4,051	2,388	24,805	16,660	916	947	8,978	7,165	7.2	1.9	6.2	3.6	37.6	25.3	1.4	1.4	13.6	10.9
Private	48	47	24,980	1,750	452	606	313	10,241	7,824	987	155	1,585	1,067	7.0	1.8	2.7	1.4	45.0	34.3	4.3	.7	6.9	4.7
Rocky Mountains	35	33	30,290	6,026	2,052	1,079	956	5,061	5,433	411	25	6,155	3,092	19.9	6.8	4.9	4.3	22.8	24.5	1.8	.1	27.7	13.9
Public	22	21	21,124	1,794	1,993	660	688	3,738	4,095	411	25	5,117	2,603	8.5	9.4	3.9	4.0	21.5	23.6	2.4	.1	29.5	15.0
Private	13	12	9,166	4,232	59	419	268	1,323	1,338	------	--------	1,038	489	46.2	.6	8.6	5.5	27.1	27.5	------	--------	21.3	10.0
Far West	156	150	139,270	45,396	8,201	26,476	20,682	12,903	12,315	1,779	1,011	5,840	4,667	32.6	5.9	30.9	24.1	15.1	14.4	2.1	1.2	6.8	5.4
Public	83	80	112,474	42,343	5,006	25,717	20,322	6,954	6,143	953	701	2,452	1,883	37.6	4.5	39.5	31.2	10.7	9.4	1.4	1.1	3.8	2.9
Private	73	70	26,796	3,053	3,195	759	360	5,949	6,172	826	310	3,388	2,784	11.4	11.9	3.7	1.8	29.0	30.0	4.0	1.5	16.5	13.5
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	10	21,307	369	7,783	701	1,433	4,993	5,300	200	303	117	108	1.7	36.5	5.3	10.9	38.0	40.3	1.5	2.3	.9	.8
Public	5	5	18,352	-------	7,707	366	806	4,272	4,473	200	303	117	108	-------	42.0	3.4	7.6	40.1	42.0	1.9	2.9	1.1	1.0
Private	5	5	2,955	369	76	335	627	721	827	------	--------	-------	--------	12.5	2.6	13.3	25.0	28.7	33.0	------	--------	-------	--------

tween public and private institutions was also consistent. In 1939, the former enrolled 63.0 percent of all summer students, and 64.1 percent in 1960 main terms. The division by sex had, of course, altered considerably by the latter year. In 1939, there were 58.4 percent women and 41.6 percent men in the total student body as against 45.2 percent women and 54.8 percent men in the 1960 degree-credit programs of the main terms.

To this point, most comparisons have been by ratios, and the analyses have employed that part of the main-term enrollment—761,156—with returns definitely apportioned by sex and by degree program. (See table 42.) This basis does not serve in comparisons with the statistics of summer sessions in the 1950's for which the Office of Education gathered data including all institutions, but only degree-credit students. Summaries for the main-term registrations of 1960 (table 42) thus have two distorting factors: there were 43 nonrespondents, and 145,157 students were reported by institutions whose records did not include classification either by sex and/or by degree programs. Use of the figure 761,156 for main-term enrollment produces the unacceptable conclusion that 1960 registrations shrank virtually 145,000 since the preceding year, 1959, and 47,150 since 1957. To gain a more valid basis of comparison, adjustments were made to distribute the students listed in tables 42, 43, and 44 as "not classified" and to account for the nonrespondents.[6] This increased the degree-program enrollment for 1960 main terms to approximately 925,000. Candor demands the admission that the possibility of considerable error in this figure may make the ensuing comparisons indicative of broad trends rather than precise relationships.

With this qualification, it is evident that the session of 1960 reexpressed the almost continuous trend of growth characteristic of summer education since its inception. In the main term of 1955 sessions, 699,280 students registered in degree-credit programs;[7] the equivalent figures for 1957 and 1959, respectively, were 808,305 and 906,155. The increase from 1955 to 1960 was 225,720, or 32.3 percent; from 1957, 116,695, or 14.4 percent; and from 1959, 18,845, or 2.1 percent. This growth appeared not only in total enrollments, but in average registration per individual summer session. In 1929, the average for 624 institutions was 603 students. This dropped sharply to 425 in 1933, then began to increase slowly to 495 in 1937, 503 in 1955, and 676 in 1960.[8]

The ratio of summer main-term enrollments to regular-year first-term enrollments is the final comparison. The main session registration of the 1955 summer schools was 26.1 percent of the 2,678,623 students who enrolled the ensuing fall; the equivalent figures for 1957, 1959, and 1960 were, respectively, 26.3 percent, 26.6 percent, and 25.6 percent, the latter based of course on the estimated total of 925,000.[9]

These statistics on enrollments suggest several conclusions. The most important was the repetition of the constantly reiterated theme of growth. Numerical increase has been general, but the proportions of increment have varied by types of institutions with junior colleges apparently leading the way in this respect. A second conclusion, well illustrated in table 43, was that summer sessions in 1960 were remarkably versatile in their offerings. This table listed 10 types of institutions and four classes of degrees. Programs leading to all four were offered in seven categories of colleges and universities; the remaining three—art schools, semiprofessional schools, and technical colleges—had curriculums for all but one degree. Thus, summer session, with only one-quarter as many registrants, rivaled the regular session in breadth of offerings.[10] As earlier noted in relation to the time span of terms, this illustrated a well-planned attempt to offer the maximum service to a maximum clientele.

Second- and Third-Term Enrollments

A sample of 475 questionnaires disclosed 127 institutions, representing all regions and most types, which operated second terms in the summer of 1960; 14 of them also had third terms. The total enrollments for the first two sessions in the

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[6] The ratios of the total of those known to be in degree programs (761,156, 93.3 percent) and those known to be registered for work without credit toward degrees (54,861, 6.7 percent) were used to distribute the unclassified 145,157. The average degree-credit enrollment per institution for each type was then determined and multiplied by the number of nonrespondents in that category.

[7] *Biennial Survey of Education 1954–56,* Ch. 4, Sec. I, p. 136.

[8] For early years, the averages are based on total enrollments, since records were not reported on the basis of terms. Hence, prior to 1955 the figures are probably somewhat inflated.

[9] Fall enrollments taken from Huddleston, op. cit., p. 10.

[10] In this connection, reference to table 4, ch. III, will show the extent to which the subject fields were offered.

127 institutions were 150,995 and 76,063; the third sessions attracted 1,734 students to the 14 colleges and universities which held them. Thus registration in the second term declined by virtually half (50.4 percent) and, more drastically, to 17.3 percent for the third term.

The characteristics found in the second-session sample enrollment showed little change from those discovered in the first, the incidence of men was somewhat higher (63.2 percent), that of bachelor's candidates slightly lower (64.4 percent). The third term, with its small enrollment, had some sharp deviations. Women outnumbered men 55.6 percent to 44.4 percent, the registration in the bachelor's curriculums declined to 37.6 percent, and that for graduate degrees rose to 41.2 percent.

The analysis which shows that the retention rate from the first to the second terms was fairly high suggests that many of the 680 institutions which offered single terms in 1960 might consider the possibility of adding a second. Admittedly, this would create problems of financing and programing. On the other hand, it would probably accelerate the education of over 100,000 students and furnish an additional means by which summer sessions could absorb part of the impending and drastic enrollment increase. It is appropriate to recall, in this connection, that 30 institutions had indicated elsewhere on the questionnaire that they intended to add a new term (chapter III).

Admissions Policies

The manner in which well over a million students gained entry into 1,369 institutions of higher education in the summer of 1960 was a topic of importance. A recurrent criticism of many early summer sessions, though by no means all, was that they sometimes admitted students who would have been rejected for the regular year. The motive for this action might have been that more students meant more money for salaries and other expenses and greater certainty of fulfilling the *sine qua non* of so many summer schools, fiscal self-efficiency. Sympathy for the compulsions behind this policy do not dismiss its dangers. Where practiced, the entry of substandard students undermined the purpose of quality-maintenance implicit in admissions requirements, and exposed the summer session to the suspicion of academic inferiority to the regular session.

To discover current practice in this respect, the 1960 questionnaire asked respondents whether summer admissions practices were the same as those of regular year and, if not, to explain the differences briefly. Of the 1,220 who responded, as table 45 indicates, 969 or 79.4 percent of the respondents, stated that requirements were the same; 251, or 20.4 percent of the respondents, said that they differed in summer.

There was little difference between publicly and privately controlled institutions in this respect but some deviations by type and region. No responding technical institutes had separate summer admissions requirements, and only 11.1 percent of "other" independent professional schools and 13.5 percent of junior colleges did. On the other hand, summer practices in this respect differed from those of the regular year in 27.5 percent of universities, 24.2 percent of technological schools, and 21.4 percent of semiprofessional schools. Regionally, the greatest prevalence of distinct summer-school entrance policies occurred in New England (37.1 percent) and the Far West (32.1 percent) and the least in the Southwest (9.3 percent) and the Southeast (12.6 percent).

The historic reasons for summer deviations apparently no longer pertained in 1960. It was evident from the explanations given by institutions whose summer admissions policies differed from those of the regular year (89 percent response) that few if any used this device for financial gain. One hundred and twenty-four colleges reported that the suspension of regular qualifications was only to admit "transient" students regularly enrolled at other colleges; generally a certificate of good standing was required of such individuals. This practice was a concession to individuals local in residence but distant in academic affiliation. Any such students who desired to enroll after the summer session were subject to the usual entrance standards and procedures.

Thirty-nine institutions reported that they did not require in summer all of the usual documentation and testing which was normally part of their registration process. Another 39 would admit "special" students, usually inservice teachers, without insistence on the usual qualifications but often with the understanding that such admis-

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Table 45.—Number and percent of institutions having summer-session admission requirements the same as regular session, by type, region, and control: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution, region, and control	Total	Institutions having summer-session admission requirements the same as regular session					
		Number			Percent		
		Yes	No	No answer	Yes	No	No answer
Aggregate United States	**1,369**	**969**	**251**	**149**	**70.8**	**18.3**	**10.9**
All public institutions	**523**	**394**	**91**	**38**	**75.3**	**17.4**	**7.3**
All private institutions	**846**	**575**	**160**	**111**	**68.0**	**18.9**	**13.1**
4-year institutions							
Universities	145	98	40	7	67.7	27.5	4.8
Liberal arts colleges	592	419	120	53	70.8	20.3	8.9
Independently organized professional schools:							
Teachers colleges	181	143	25	13	79.0	13.8	7.2
Technological schools	33	22	8	3	66.7	24.2	9.1
Theological and religious schools	62	38	10	14	61.3	16.1	22.6
Art schools	32	22	6	4	68.7	18.8	12.5
Other	36	24	4	8	66.7	11.1	22.2
2-year institutions							
Junior colleges	260	187	35	38	71.9	13.5	14.6
Technical institutes	14	11	--------	3	78.6	--------	21.4
Semiprofessional schools	14	5	3	6	35.7	21.4	42.9
Region							
New England	97	47	36	14	48.5	37.1	14.4
Public	24	13	8	3	54.2	33.3	12.5
Private	73	34	28	11	46.6	38.3	15.1
Mideast	244	171	47	26	70.1	19.3	10.6
Public	57	40	13	4	70.2	22.8	7.0
Private	187	131	34	22	70.0	18.2	11.8
Great Lakes	230	163	38	29	70.9	16.5	12.6
Public	65	50	10	5	76.9	15.4	7.7
Private	165	113	28	24	68.5	17.0	14.5
Plains	161	129	22	10	80.1	13.7	6.2
Public	62	58	2	2	93.6	3.2	3.2
Private	99	71	20	8	71.7	20.2	8.1
Southeast	318	242	40	36	76.1	12.6	11.3
Public	135	105	20	10	77.8	14.8	7.4
Private	183	137	20	26	74.9	10.9	14.2
Southwest	118	99	11	8	83.9	9.3	6.8
Public	70	59	6	5	84.3	8.6	7.1
Private	48	40	5	3	83.3	10.4	6.3
Rocky Mountains	35	21	7	7	60.0	20.0	20.0
Public	22	15	6	1	68.2	27.3	4.5
Private	13	6	1	6	46.2	7.6	46.2
Far West	156	88	50	18	56.4	32.1	11.5
Public	83	49	26	8	59.0	31.3	9.7
Private	73	39	24	10	53.4	32.9	13.7
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	9	0	1	90.0	0	10.0
Public	5	5	0	0	100.0	0	0
Private	5	4	0	1	80.0	0	20.0

sion did not normally lead to a degree. Twenty colleges admitted to summer session their own students who were suspended for substandard work if there was a reasonable presumption that they could redeem previous failures.

It is of particular interest that 25 institutions permitted the use of their summer sessions as a "try-out" for borderline applicants who would otherwise probably be refused admission. Many other colleges and universities might well consider the adoption of this policy which gives the earnest student his chance, but temporarily diverts him from the over-crowded fall term. This is one of several ways in which summer sessions can help to increase enrollment capacity in the demanding days ahead.[11]

Credits Offered and Credits Earned

One important objective measure of the contribution of summer sessions is the number of credits they enable students to earn. The maximum number of credits for which students were permitted to enroll in the 1960 summer sessions, as shown in the following tabulation, ranged from 2 to 24, with the greatest frequencies at 6 (253) and 12 (205).

	Number of institutions[1]	
Number of credits	*Maximum credit-hour load permitted*	*Average number of credits earned*
1	0	2
2	2	3
3	15	42
4	8	96
5	6	119
6	253	316
7	30	65
8	133	101
9	140	80
10	63	38
11	12	17
12	205	102
13	14	7
14	39	6
15	38	19
16	33	14
17	4	6
18	34	14
19	3	5
20	22	2
24	1	1

[1] Total institutions 1,055.

Institutions were also asked to give the average number of credits actually earned by individuals in the main terms and in all terms; the returns appear in tables 46 and 47.

Converted to percentages, the data show that the registrants averaged from 5 to 8 credits in the main terms of 72.0 percent of responding semester-hour colleges and universities, and from 6 to 11 credits at 56.0 percent of quarter-hour institutions (table 46).

Average credits earned per student increased notably when all terms were included (table 47). The incidence of respondent semester-hour institutions with 9 or more credit hours earned rose from 9.8 percent for main terms only to 21.4 percent. In quarter-hour schools, the frequency of those with an average of 12 or more credits earned increased from 34.3 percent for the single term to 52.4 percent for all terms. Since institutions with one-term sessions would reply to both questions with the same figure, the increase in earned credits for all sessions came from perhaps half of the respondents. This underlines the importance of multiple terms in increasing credit production and, in effect, enrollment capacities.

It is important to know that students accept the opportunity to earn additional credits, and it is also important to know the proportion of the hours available to them which were actually taken. The resulting figure might be considered an efficiency ratio.

The tabulation which shows the maximum credit load possible and the average number of credits actually earned by the typical student in all terms of the 1,055 institutions which responded to both items. It is evident that the greatest frequencies of credits earned are lower on the scale than the greatest frequencies of maximum credits permitted. Averages tell a more exact story. The average number of credits which students at these institutions together might have taken was 9.84; those actually taken were 7.56, or 2.28 fewer per student than the permissible maximum. The efficiency ratio was 76.7 percent; expressed in reverse, nearly one-quarter of the available credits, perhaps 700,000 to 800,000 at a rough calculation, were unused. This lost potential was not uniformly distributed among the 1,055 institutions, for 242 reported that the credit load permitted and the credit load attempted were identical. The "wastage" mentioned was concentrated in 813 colleges and universities.

Many summer session students do not take full advantage of the credit-load opportunities offered. The part-time student has always been an impor-

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[11] See also ch. III.

Table 46.—Number of institutions by average number of credit hours earned by a typical student in main term of summer session, by region: Aggregate United States, 1960

Region	Number of institutions where typical student earned in main term—									
	Semester-hour credits					Quarter-hour credits				
	Total institutions	No answer	Less than 5	5–8	9 or more	Total institutions	No answer	Less than 6	6–11	12 or more
Aggregate United States	**1, 116**	**121**	**182**	**716**	**97**	**190**	**24**	**16**	**93**	**57**
New England	89	10	7	68	4	1	------	------	------	1
Mideast	220	17	51	140	12	7	2	1	2	2
Great Lakes	176	23	31	116	6	37	7	4	15	11
Plains	132	11	20	80	21	27	2	2	17	6
Southeast	241	26	23	155	37	68	5	4	43	16
Southwest	116	15	8	86	7	1	------	------	------	1
Rocky Mountains	15	2	2	5	6	18	3	1	5	9
Far West	118	17	37	60	4	31	5	4	11	11
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	9	------	3	6	------	------	------	------	------	------

Table 47.—Number of institutions by average number of credit hours earned in all terms of summer session, by region: Aggregate United States, 1960

Region	Number of institutions where typical students earned in all terms—									
	Semester-hour credits					Quarter-hour credits				
	Total institutions	No answer	Less than 5	5 to 8	9 or more	Total institutions	No answer	Less than 6	6 to 11	12 or more
Aggregate United States	**1, 116**	**91**	**156**	**650**	**219**	**190**	**26**	**10**	**68**	**86**
New England	89	13	10	61	5	1	------	------	------	1
Mideast	220	17	37	143	23	7	2	------	2	3
Great Lakes	176	16	30	115	15	37	6	4	14	13
Plains	132	12	10	85	25	27	3	1	9	14
Southeast	241	11	16	114	100	68	9	2	20	37
Southwest	116	10	5	57	44	1	------	------	1	------
Rocky Mountains	15	1	3	10	1	18	3	1	7	7
Far West	118	10	43	60	5	31	3	2	15	11
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	9	1	2	5	1	------	------	------	------	------

tant proportion of attendance for reasons which are several, well known, and legitimate. At the same time, he represents potential credits lost at a time when the achievement of maximum educational efficiency in terms of staff and plant utilization is becoming a factor of critical national importance. This suggests that appropriate means should be employed to encourage students to carry loads commensurate with the circumstances.

Credits and Residence Requirements

Whatever the number of credits he took, the student in the 1960 summer session had a vital interest in their acceptance toward his graduation. Institutions of higher education generally limit the number of nonresidence credits which degree-candidates can offer, implying that such work does not represent the full learning experience of residence credits and is inferior to them in that respect. Thus a further judgment of the equality of summer session with the regular year would be the acceptance—or rejection—of its credits as part of the in-residence requirements.

In this respect, the overwhelming majority of institutions of higher education give full faith and credit to work done in summer sessions. Of 1,053 responses to this query, 991 or 94.1 percent accepted such work as in-residence (table 48).

The differences between types and regions were small. Among respondents, acceptance of summer courses for residence credit fell below 90 per-

Table 48.—Number and percent of institutions granting credit for summer session work toward degree residence requirements, by type of institution and region: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type and region	Total institutions	Institutions whose summer session credits apply toward degree residence requirements					
		Number			Percent		
		Yes	No	No answer	Yes	No	No answer
Aggregate United States	**1,369**	**991**	**62**	**316**	**72.4**	**4.5**	**23.1**
4-year institutions							
Universities	145	123	4	18	84.8	2.8	12.4
Liberal arts colleges	592	448	24	120	75.7	4.0	20.3
Independently organized professional schools:							
Teachers colleges	181	141	3	37	77.9	1.7	20.4
Technological schools	33	22	3	8	66.7	9.1	24.2
Theological and religious schools	62	33	5	24	53.2	8.1	38.7
Art schools	32	24	2	6	75.0	6.2	18.8
Other	36	19	4	13	52.8	11.1	36.1
2-year institutions							
Junior colleges	260	168	16	76	64.6	6.2	29.2
Technical institutes	14	8	0	6	57.1	--------	42.9
Semiprofessional schools	14	5	1	8	35.7	7.1	57.2
Region							
New England	97	66	7	24	68.0	7.2	24.8
Mideast	244	165	24	55	67.6	9.8	22.6
Great Lakes	230	164	7	59	71.3	3.0	25.7
Plains	161	127	4	30	78.9	2.5	18.6
Southeast	318	243	6	69	76.4	1.9	21.7
Southwest	118	88	4	26	74.6	3.4	22.0
Rocky Mountains	35	27	0	8	77.1	--------	22.9
Far West	156	104	8	44	66.7	5.1	28.2
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	7	2	1	70.0	20.0	10.0

cent of institutions in technological, "other" professional, semiprofessional, and theological and religious schools, and regionally, only in Alaska-Hawaii and the Mideast.

Size of Class Enrollment

This nearly universal acceptance of summer-session credits probably stems in part from the quality of the faculty as noted and from the wide offerings of standard subject fields available to summer students.[12] This questionnaire did not attempt to ascertain the name and number of individual courses in the various academic areas mentioned, nor the recent trends of student demands in this respect, an important area of exploration for future studies.

It did, however, request information on class sizes. Institutions were asked to state the number of classes, if any, in each of 11 categories, ranging by intervals of 10, from less than 10 to more than 100 in their 1960 summer sessions. Table 49 contains data on the number of institutions which had classes in each of these categories; table 50, the number of individual classes in all institutions.

It will be noted that, in both tables, the greatest frequencies were in the 10 to 19 class, followed by less than 10 and 20 to 29. There was a steady decline after the 10 to 19 interval in each table up to the more than 100 category. With two exceptions, universities were highest in the number of institutions reporting all class sizes, and in the number of individual classes. It is interesting to note the large number of classes with less than 10 students. Although some of this might be attributed to those students who were enrolled for thesis or dissertation, it also suggests that institutions may be discarding, or liberalizing, the "sudden death" regulation that courses must achieve a given minimum enrollment or be dropped, with accompanying loss of income for the faculty member involved.

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[12] Noted in chapter III. A separate publication listing subject fields offered by individual institutions has been published by the Office of Education under the title, *Summer Session Offerings in Institutions of Higher Education*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1962, OE-56009.

Table 49.—Number and percent of institutions by size of class enrollment in summer session, by region, and by selected types of institutions: Aggregate United States, 1960

Region and type of institution	Total number of institutions	Institutions not answering	Size of class enrollment										
			Less than 10	10 to 19	20 to 29	30 to 39	40 to 49	50 to 59	60 to 69	70 to 79	80 to 89	90 to 100	More than 100
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
			NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS										
Aggregate United States	**1,369**	**218**	**955**	**1,063**	**950**	**747**	**545**	**367**	**201**	**140**	**92**	**59**	**90**
Region													
New England	97	19	58	69	60	44	27	14	9	6	4	2	8
Mideast	244	40	171	185	169	131	86	58	29	19	11	8	6
Great Lakes	230	40	157	174	159	119	93	61	32	28	12	9	18
Plains	161	17	125	133	113	91	67	51	35	19	17	9	14
Southeast	318	55	233	247	214	173	120	83	43	31	18	11	17
Southwest	118	12	86	100	95	72	56	41	18	12	7	5	5
Rocky Mountains	35	8	26	26	23	21	16	11	8	7	5	2	3
Far West	156	27	90	119	108	89	75	45	24	16	16	12	18
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	------	9	10	9	7	5	3	3	2	2	1	1
Type of institution													
Universities	145	15	126	128	129	123	123	109	77	59	48	36	39
Liberal arts colleges	592	81	463	482	428	316	203	126	67	43	20	12	27
Teachers colleges	181	25	140	150	150	143	114	89	35	26	15	7	9
Junior colleges	260	46	133	153	157	94	61	20	10	4	6	2	6
All others	191	51	93	150	86	68	44	23	12	8	3	2	9
			PERCENT OF INSTITUTIONS										
Aggregate United States	**1,369**	**15.9**	**69.8**	**77.6**	**69.4**	**54.6**	**39.8**	**26.8**	**14.7**	**10.2**	**6.7**	**4.3**	**6.6**
Region													
New England	97	19.6	59.8	71.1	61.9	45.4	27.8	14.4	9.3	6.2	4.1	2.1	8.2
Mideast	244	16.4	70.1	75.8	69.3	53.7	35.2	23.8	11.9	7.8	4.5	3.3	2.5
Great Lakes	230	17.4	68.3	75.6	69.1	51.7	40.4	26.5	13.9	12.2	5.2	3.9	7.8
Plains	161	10.6	77.6	82.6	70.2	56.5	41.6	31.1	21.7	11.8	10.6	5.6	8.7
Southeast	318	17.3	73.3	77.7	67.3	54.4	37.7	26.1	13.5	9.7	5.7	3.5	5.3
Southwest	118	10.2	72.9	84.7	80.5	61.0	47.5	24.7	15.3	10.2	5.9	4.2	4.2
Rocky Mountains	35	22.9	74.3	74.3	65.7	60.0	45.7	31.4	22.9	20.0	14.3	5.7	8.6
Far West	156	17.3	57.7	76.3	69.2	57.1	48.1	28.8	15.4	10.3	10.3	7.7	11.5
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	------	90.0	100.0	90.0	70.0	50.0	30.0	30.0	20.0	20.0	10.0	10.0
Type of institution													
Universities	145	10.3	86.9	88.3	89.0	86.9	84.8	75.2	53.1	40.7	33.1	24.8	26.9
Liberal arts colleges	592	13.7	78.2	81.4	72.3	53.4	34.3	21.3	11.3	7.3	3.4	2.0	4.6
Teachers colleges	181	13.8	77.3	82.9	82.9	79.0	63.0	49.2	19.3	14.4	8.3	3.9	5.0
Junior colleges	260	17.7	51.2	58.8	60.4	36.2	23.5	7.7	3.8	1.5	2.3	.8	2.3
All other types	191	26.7	48.7	78.5	45.0	35.6	23.0	12.0	6.3	4.2	1.6	1.0	4.7

Scholarship and Travel Programs

Subjects and classes do not exhaust the catalog of services which many individual summer sessions offered their students in 1960. As noted in chapter IV, 367 institutions made their regular-year scholarship programs available to summer undergraduates, and 181 offered the same assistance to graduate students.

Nor did summer sessions neglect that rapidly growing aspect of American higher education, study abroad. One hundred and ninety-two colleges and universities offered 247 foreign and domestic travel courses for credit as part of their 1960 summer sessions. In some instances, American institutions maintained campuses overseas and presented a varied curriculum there. More commonly, individual classes traveled to appropriate points of interest, either overseas or in Canada, Mexico, and the United States. Of the 187 foreign travel programs, over half were in Europe. Five included the U.S.S.R. Other destinations were South America, the Middle East, the Orient, Japan, the Mediterranean Area, Jamaica, South Pacific and "Around the World." Taken together, they awarded credits ranging from 2 to 15 in at least 25 academic fields, or combinations of fields, including foreign languages (23), art (22), and geography and geology (21).[13]

Though there has been insufficient attempt to evaluate some of these programs or to integrate them with the regular curriculum, and a few have earned the appellation of "sightseeing,"[14] it is

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[13] A more detailed treatment of this subject was published as *Travel Programs Sponsored by Institutions of Higher Education in Summer Sessions, 1960*, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, OE-54028, 1962.

[14] Irwin Abrams and W. R. Hatch, *Study Abroad*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1960, New Dimensions in Higher Education, No. 6, OE-50014; Herrick B. Young, "No Academic Credit for Travel Abroad," *School and Society*, LXXXI, No. 2060, May 28, 1955, p. 168.

Table 50.—Number of classes reported held during summer sessions, by size of class enrollment, region, and selected types of institution: [1] Aggregate United States, 1960

Region and type of institution	Size of class enrollment										
	Less than 10	10 to 19	20 to 29	30 to 39	40 to 49	50 to 59	60 to 69	70 to 79	80 to 89	90 to 100	More than 100
Aggregate United States	**38, 859**	**41, 716**	**27, 684**	**12, 274**	**4, 524**	**1, 658**	**672**	**504**	**174**	**460**	**1, 251**
Region											
New England	905	1, 580	943	393	161	78	49	21	16	10	62
Mideast	4, 282	5, 725	4, 555	1, 910	609	197	62	42	20	22	31
Great Lakes	8, 648	7, 177	5, 238	2, 221	839	311	106	152	22	223	255
Plains	5, 374	4, 272	2, 587	1, 166	485	239	146	66	36	19	31
Southeast	9, 448	10, 671	6, 397	2, 690	929	334	94	47	21	52	543
Southwest	3, 977	5, 615	3, 194	1, 427	440	133	41	95	12	7	12
Rocky Mountains	2, 115	1, 876	862	386	153	58	30	17	8	4	4
Far West	3, 808	4, 424	3, 497	1, 740	834	261	124	54	35	118	298
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	302	376	411	341	74	47	20	10	4	5	15
Type of institution											
Universities	17, 465	16, 986	11, 501	4, 790	1, 877	805	417	213	117	84	466
Liberal arts colleges	13, 049	13, 277	8, 208	3, 609	1, 040	361	136	224	24	50	282
Teachers colleges	5, 674	7, 442	4, 839	2, 376	914	348	64	43	21	103	14
Junior colleges	1, 082	1, 996	1, 659	867	474	48	15	5	9	7	149
All other types	1, 589	2, 015	1, 477	632	219	96	40	19	3	216	340

[1] Tables 51 and 52 are not directly comparable because a number of institutions indicated that they had classes of various sizes but did not state the exact number.

clear that they have increased rapidly to become an important aspect of American higher education. A pamphlet issued in 1932 described only 27 foreign and 23 domestic tours for credit in that summer;[15] in 1955, 137 institutions of higher education gave credits for educational travel, presumably including both regular and summer sessions.

Noncredit Workshops and Institutes

This rapid growth of foreign travel programs by the summer of 1960 was more than matched by the rise and increase in noncredit workshops and institutes. As noted in the historical sketch, critics took advantage of the tempting target presented by unorthodox courses given in some of the earlier summer sessions. They contended that these offerings would not be accepted in regular sessions because of their vocational or recreational overtones, and that they were scheduled in summer to attract only more students. Where it occurred, therefore, this practice tended to bring disrepute and to emphasize the inferior status of summer programs.

Such criticism seldom finds voice today. One important reason was the rise of the institute and workshop in 1936. This enabled colleges and universities to present unusual courses as non-degree-credit institutes and workshops which instructed their registrants without reflection on the integrity of the sponsoring institution.[16]

Because workshops apparently began in 1936, the study of 1940 was the first general survey to include information about them. It is noted that they had developed almost entirely in summer sessions and had grown in number from 40 in 1938 to 57 in 1939, and 106 in 1940, conducted by 106 colleges and universities.[17]

The 1960 survey (table 51) showed that the number of sponsoring institutions had more than tripled over the intervening decades—106 to 362—and individual workshops had increased 1,700 percent, from 106 to 1,802, with 175,302 registrants.

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[15] Ella Ratcliffe, *Summer Educational Opportunities*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, Office of Education Pamphlet, No. 27, 1932.

[16] There seemed to be no universal rule for deciding which workshops should award credit. A limited comparison, based on some degree-credit workshops listed in responses, indicated that subject matter was occasionally the determinant, though the topics of many non-degree-credit institutes were conventionally academic. More often, the greater duration of credit-bearing workshops appeared to be the vital criterion.

[17] *Summer Sessions*, op. cit., p. 156–67.

Table 51.—Data on nondegree institutes and workshops, including number of institutions holding such institutes or workshops, number held, enrollment, percent distribution, and percent distribution of enrollment, by control and type of institution: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution	Number of institutions	Number of institutions holding nondegree institutes and workshops			Number of nondegree institutes and workshops held			Enrollment in nondegree institutes and workshops			Percent distribution of nondegree institutes and workshops [1]			Percent distribution of enrollment in nondegree institutes and workshops [2]		
		Tota'	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Aggregate United States	**1,369**	**362**	**158**	**204**	**1,802**	**1,145**	**657**	**175,302**	**132,168**	**43,134**	**100.0**	**63.7**	**36.3**	**100.0**	**75.40**	**24.6**
4-year institutions																
Universities	145	88	51	37	1,015	787	228	123,114	104,494	18,620	56.3	43.7	12.6	70.23	59.61	10.6
Liberal arts colleges	592	151	37	114	415	148	267	29,002	12,033	16,969	23.0	8.2	14.8	16.54	6.86	9.6
Independently organized professional schools:																
Teachers colleges	181	48	42	6	157	140	17	13,158	12,656	502	8.7	7.8	.9	7.51	7.22	.2
Technological schools	33	12	5	7	86	28	58	4,115	1,345	2,770	4.8	1.6	3.2	2.35	.77	1.5
Theological and religious schools	62	16	-------	16	37	-------	37	1,128	-------	1,128	2.0	-------	2.0	.64	-------	.6
Art schools	32	10	-------	10	13	-------	13	527	-------	527	.7	-------	.7	.30	-------	.3
Other	36	2	1	1	5	1	4	69	10	59	.3	.1	.2	-------	-------	-------
2-year institutions																
Junior colleges	260	31	22	9	68	41	27	2,799	1,630	1,169	3.8	2.3	1.5	1.60	.93	.6
Technical institutes	14	4	-------	4	6	-------	6	1,390	-------	1,390	.4	-------	.4	.79	-------	.7
Semiprofessional schools	14	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------

[1] 1,802 taken as 100 percent.
[2] 175,302 students equal 100 percent.

Analysis of the gross figures in tables 51 and 52 by type and control of institutions revealed definite characteristics. Universities clearly dominated this aspect of summer education, sponsoring 56.3 percent of the institutes and workshops and enrolling 70.2 percent of all participants. Liberal arts colleges were second in both respects, accounting for 23.0 percent of the institutes and workshops and 16.5 percent of the registrants, followed by teachers colleges whose equivalent figures were 8.7 percent and 7.5 percent. At the same time, technical institutes which held only .3 of one percent of all such institutes and workshops were far ahead in average enrollment at 232, followed by universities with 121, teachers colleges with 84, and liberal arts colleges with 70. The publicly controlled institutions exceeded the privately controlled in the percents of all institutes and workshops held, 63.7 to 36.3; in total enrollments, 75.4 percent to 24.6; and in average enrollment per institute, 115 to 66.

Regional analysis yielded only minor departures from the above characteristics. Only in New England and the Mideast did privately controlled exceed publicly controlled institutions in the number of workshops conducted, 71 to 19, and 189 to 123, respectively. The former area was unique in having more registrants in the institutes of private colleges and universities. The Southeast, alone, reported a higher enrollment in the institutes of public liberal arts colleges than of private. These differences in detail were the only regional nonconformities.

An examination of 800 questionnaires in the 1960 study showed that institutes and workshops had changed somewhat in emphasis as well as in numbers over the past two decades. In 1940, education was the dominant subject with 78 institutes (73.6 percent of all held) wherein precollege topics outnumbered those on higher education 64 to 14.[18] Business, professional, and vocational themes accounted for only 18 workshops, and social, cultural, or national activities and problems for 10.

Analysis of the 1,265 institutes listed in the sample of the 1960 questionnaires showed that the field of education remained paramount with 748 workshops, a considerable numerical increase but a proportional decline to 59.1 percent. Institutes on social, cultural, and national affairs increased to 223 (17.6 percent) while those devoted to business, professional, and vocational interests numbered 294 (23.3 percent). A brief comparison of the

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[18] A few of the titles listed in the 1940 study were vague and have been arbitrarily assigned to the categories which seemed most appropriate.

Table 52.—Data on nondegree institutes and workshops, including number of institutions holding such institutes and workshops, number held, and enrollment, by region, type of institution, and control: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution and region	Total institutions	Number of institutions holding nondegree institutes and workshops			Number of nondegree institutes and workshops			Enrollment in nondegree institutes and workshops		
		Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private
Aggregate United States	**1, 369**	**362**	**158**	**204**	**1, 802**	**1, 145**	**657**	**175, 302**	**132, 168**	**43, 134**
NEW ENGLAND	97	28	6	22	90	19	71	6, 473	2, 342	4, 131
4-year institutions										
Universities	11	7	3	4	20	8	12	1, 421	460	961
Liberal arts colleges	42	12	------	12	23	------	23	1, 054	------	1, 054
Independently organized professional schools:										
Teachers colleges	20	2	2	------	3	3	------	1, 645	1, 645	------
Technological schools	4	3	1	2	37	8	29	2, 230	237	1, 993
Theological and religious schools	3	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Art schools	5	2	------	2	2	------	2	53	------	53
Other	5	1	------	1	4	------	4	59	------	59
2-year institutions										
Junior colleges	4	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Technical institutes	1	1	------	1	1	------	1	11	------	11
Semiprofessional schools	2	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
MIDEAST	244	57	14	43	312	123	189	32, 886	19, 390	13, 496
4-year institutions										
Universities	26	17	2	15	215	97	118	27, 314	18, 046	9, 268
Liberal arts colleges	99	18	2	16	32	2	30	1, 928	151	1, 777
Independently organized professional schools:										
Teachers colleges	41	8	8	------	20	20	------	1, 119	1, 119	------
Technological schools	9	4	------	4	22	------	22	559	------	559
Theological and religious schools	14	4	------	4	12	------	12	412	------	412
Art schools	7	2	------	2	2	------	2	68	------	68
Other	10	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
2-year institutions										
Junior colleges	27	3	2	1	6	4	2	167	74	93
Technical institutes	6	1	------	1	3	------	3	1, 319	------	1, 319
Semiprofessional schools	5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
GREAT LAKES	230	65	22	43	494	348	146	57, 428	47, 511	9, 917
4-year institutions										
Universities	24	17	11	6	340	293	47	46, 235	43, 265	2, 970
Liberal arts colleges	101	29	4	25	110	34	76	8, 710	2, 427	6, 283
Independently organized professional schools:										
Teachers colleges	23	8	5	3	20	13	7	1, 838	1, 694	144
Technological schools	8	2	1	1	10	3	7	328	110	218
Theological and religious schools	13	3	------	3	3	------	3	107	------	107
Art schools	11	2	------	2	2	------	2	131	------	131
Other	11	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
2-year institutions										
Junior colleges	32	3	1	2	8	5	3	39	15	24
Technical institutes	5	1	------	1	1	------	1	40	------	40
Semiprofessional schools	2	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
PLAINS	161	43	18	25	144	92	52	12, 256	8, 315	3, 941
4-year institutions										
Universities	17	12	8	4	70	54	16	5, 385	4, 015	1, 370
Liberal arts colleges	77	18	2	16	29	4	25	2, 491	319	2, 172
Independently organized professional schools:										
Teachers colleges	28	7	7	------	33	33	------	3, 892	3, 892	------
Technological schools	1	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Theological and religious schools	5	2	------	2	5	------	5	254	------	254
Art schools	4	2	------	2	5	------	5	133	------	133
Other	1	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------

Table 52.—Data on nondegree institutes and workshops, including number of institutions holding such institutes and workshops, number held, and enrollment, by region, type of institution, and control: Aggregate United States, 1960—Continued

Type of institution and region	Total institutions	Number of institutions holding nondegree institutes and workshops			Number of nondegree institutes and workshops			Enrollment in nondegree institutes and workshops		
		Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private
PLAINS—Continued										
2-year institutions										
Junior colleges	27	2	1	1	2	1	1	101	89	12
Technical institutes	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-------	-------	-------
Semiprofessional schools	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-------	-------	-------
SOUTHEAST	318	84	47	37	353	258	95	30, 375	24, 312	6, 063
4-year institutions										
Universities	28	18	13	5	169	151	18	19, 523	16, 703	2, 820
Liberal arts colleges	161	35	14	21	87	42	45	7, 354	5, 619	1, 735
Independently organized professional schools:										
Teachers colleges	39	15	13	2	46	44	2	1, 642	1, 447	195
Technological schools	3	1	1	-----	10	10	-----	-------	-------	-------
Theological and religious schools	11	4	-----	4	9	-----	9	302	-------	302
Art Schools	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-------	-------	-------
Other	3	1	1	-----	1	1	-----	10	10	-------
2-year institutions										
Junior colleges	69	9	5	4	30	10	20	1, 524	533	991
Technical institutes	1	1	-----	1	1	-----	1	20	-------	20
Semiprofessional schools	3	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-------	-------	-------
SOUTHWEST	118	39	26	13	212	170	42	20, 523	18, 758	1, 765
4-year institutions										
Universities	15	7	6	1	109	107	2	14, 616	14, 221	395
Liberal arts colleges	42	16	6	10	54	25	29	2, 309	1, 122	1, 187
Independently organized professional schools:										
Teachers colleges	15	8	7	1	35	27	8	3, 022	2, 859	163
Technological schools	3	1	1	-----	2	2	-----	71	71	-------
Theological and religious schools	5	1	-----	1	3	-----	3	20	-------	20
Art schools	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-------	-------	-------
Other	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-------	-------	-------
2-year institutions										
Junior colleges	37	6	6	-----	9	9	-----	485	485	-------
Technical institutes	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-------	-------	-------
Semiprofessional schools	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-------	-------	-------
ROCKY MOUNTAINS	35	11	8	3	80	69	11	7, 780	7, 226	554
4-year institutions										
Universities	10	5	4	1	71	63	8	7, 522	7, 077	445
Liberal arts colleges	9	2	1	1	3	1	2	97	37	60
Independently organized professional schools:										
Teachers colleges	6	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-------	-------	-------
Technological schools	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-------	-------	-------
Theological and religious schools	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-------	-------	-------
Art schools	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-------	-------	-------
Other	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-------	-------	-------
2-year institutions										
Junior colleges	7	4	3	1	6	5	1	161	112	49
Technical institutes	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-------	-------	-------
Semiprofessional schools	1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-------	-------	-------

Table 52.—Data on nondegree institutes and workshops, including number of institutions holding such institutes and workshops, number held, and enrollment, by region, type of institution, and control: Aggregate United States, 1960—Continued

Type of institution and region	Total institutions	Number of institutions holding nondegree institutes and workshops			Number of nondegree institutes and workshops			Enrollment in nondegree institutes and workshops		
		Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private	Total	Public	Private
FAR WEST	156	32	15	17	98	51	47	6, 704	3, 714	2, 990
4-year institutions										
Universities	12	4	3	1	11	4	7	696	305	391
Liberal arts colleges	56	19	7	12	68	35	33	4, 584	2, 160	2, 424
Independently organized professional schools:										
Teachers colleges	9	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Technological schools	4	1	1	------	5	5	------	927	927	------
Theological and religious schools	10	2	------	2	5	------	5	33	------	33
Art schools	5	2	------	2	2	------	2	142	------	142
Other	5	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
2-year institutions										
Junior colleges	54	4	4	------	7	7	------	322	322	------
Technical institutes	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Semiprofessional schools	1	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
ALASKA, HAWAII, AND OUTLYING PARTS	10	3	2	1	19	15	4	877	600	277
4-year institutions										
Universities	2	1	1	------	10	10	------	402	402	------
Liberal arts colleges	5	2	1	1	9	5	4	475	198	277
Independently organized professional schools:										
Teachers colleges	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Technological schools	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Theological and religious schools	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Art schools	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Other	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
2-year institutions										
Junior colleges	3	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Technical institutes	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------
Semiprofessional schools	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------	------

number and percentage distribution of summer-session workshop topics for 1940 and 1960 is shown in the following tabulation:

Workshop topic	Workshops in 1940 summer sessions		Workshops in 1960 summer sessions	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Business, professional, vocational	18	17. 0	294	23. 3
Education: precollege	64	60. 4	513	40. 5
Education: higher	14	13. 2	235	18. 6
Social, cultural, national affairs	10	9. 4	223	17. 6

The subject content of the workshops revealed again the sensitivity of summer sessions to contemporary developments and interests. For example, concern at the inability of many Americans to use their native language effectively led to 57 institutes under such titles as English Skills or Remedial Reading. The post-Sputnik demand for more and more effective science and mathematics instruction resulted in 84 workshops. There were also a considerable number of institutes and workshops devoted to international affairs, race relations, and juvenile delinquency. Several titles would delight connoisseurs of the unique. A jazz workshop featuring Duke Ellington is not standard curricular fare, while an institute devoted to horseshoeing revives poignant memories of a presumably by-gone age.

Because the noncredit workshop is in summer session, but in a sense not of it, there have been questions of its validity as a part of higher education. Its defenders have offered some cogent arguments. Negatively, the noncredit status has dispelled the early complaint that many institutes were not academic in content. Positively, they have served the basic purpose of education by providing knowledge to those who need it but could not attend regular sessions and courses. Thus, the institute has played a significant part in opening educational opportunities to many and has created a valuable byproduct in wider public interest in and support of higher learning.

The principal doubts arise from the rapid increase in both noncredit institutes and workshops and regular student enrollments. These concurrent developments might strain available facilities, particularly if summer sessions undertake the imperative task of increasing enrollment capacities on a large scale. Before any realistic assessment of the non-degree-credit institute can be made, careful study is needed to answer a number of questions. Can the facilities of higher education—faculty, administration, equipment, and space—serve both workshops and an expansion of regular student enrollment? How are the institutes financed? What control do colleges and universities have over the selection and supervision of their instructional personnel? The answers to these and other questions could indicate the future status of this important aspect of education during a time of crisis.

Library Facilities

Returns of the 1960 questionnaire showed that in 696 institutions summer library hours were identical with those of the regular session, were shorter in 468, and longer in 67. (See table 53.) Exclusive of the 138 nonrespondents, the respective percentages were 56.5, 38.0, and 5.4. The incidence of shorter hours was greatest among junior colleges, liberal arts colleges, and universities, and least in types of institutions where year-round education was most common, semiprofessional schools and technical colleges. Longer summer library hours were most often found in teachers colleges. Alaska-Hawaii, with only 10 colleges and universities, coupled the lowest percent with shorter hours and the highest proportion with longer hours; other regional variations were slight.

Table 53.—Number and percent of institutions showing a comparison of summer and regular session library study hours, by type of institution and region: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type of institution and region	Number of institutions					Percent of institutions				
	Total institutions	Library reading hours			No answer	Total institutions	Library reading hours			No answer
		Shorter	Same	Longer			Shorter	Same	Longer	
Aggregate United States	**1, 369**	**468**	**696**	**67**	**138**	**100**	**34. 2**	**50. 8**	**4. 9**	**10. 1**
4-year institutions										
Universities	145	51	80	8	6	100	35. 2	55. 2	5. 5	4. 1
Liberal arts colleges	592	217	299	28	48	100	36. 7	50. 5	4. 7	8. 1
Independently organized professional schools:										
Teachers colleges	181	42	113	17	9	100	23. 2	62. 4	9. 4	5. 0
Technological schools	33	9	21	0	3	100	27. 3	63. 6	. 0	9. 1
Theological and religious schools	62	16	31	2	13	100	25. 8	50. 0	3. 2	21. 0
Art schools	32	7	18	0	7	100	21. 9	56. 2	. 0	21. 9
Other	36	6	20	1	9	100	16. 7	55. 5	2. 8	25. 0
2-year institutions										
Junior colleges	260	118	99	11	32	100	45. 4	38. 1	4. 2	12. 3
Technical colleges	14	1	9	0	4	100	7. 1	64. 3	. 0	28. 6
Semiprofessional schools	14	1	6	0	7	100	7. 1	42. 9	. 0	50. 0
Region										
New England	97	36	45	5	11	100	37. 1	46. 4	5. 2	11. 3
Mideast	244	88	117	12	27	100	36. 1	47. 9	4. 9	11. 1
Great Lakes	230	83	112	10	25	100	36. 1	48. 7	4. 3	10. 9
Plains	161	61	76	11	13	100	37. 9	47. 2	6. 8	8. 1
Southeast	318	89	181	15	33	100	28. 0	56. 9	4. 7	10. 4
Southwest	118	37	67	6	8	100	31. 3	56. 8	5. 1	6. 8
Rocky Mountains	35	10	16	3	6	100	28. 6	45. 7	8. 6	17. 1
Far West	156	62	75	4	15	100	39. 7	48. 1	2. 6	9. 6
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	2	7	1	0	100	20. 0	70. 0	10. 0	. 0

The shorter summer session library hours in some institutions might have resulted from the compulsion for self-sufficiency imposed on their directors. There were other credible explanations. Because summer enrollments are less than those of the regular year, demands on library service were also less. A number of institutions have a much higher percentage of commuter students in summer and, partly for this reason, curtail the academic day. Thus, shorter library hours may be a natural consequence of fewer students and classes, producing a smaller campus population at any given time and particularly at late and early hours, than would be present in the regular session.

Degree Requirements Completed

During the summer session of 1960, 91,356 students completed their degree requirements: a total of 3,887 completed requirements for associate degrees, 4.3 percent of all; 55,770 bachelor's or first professional, 61.0 percent; 28,664 for master's, 31.4 percent; 1,932 for doctorates, 2.1 percent, and 1,103 for other degrees, 1.2 percent (tables 54 and 55). Numerically, the most productive area was the Southeast, where 20,016 fulfilled degree requirements, closely followed by the Great Lakes with 19,614, then, after a considerable gap, the Plains with 11,946.

The incidence of bachelor's candidates among all who completed degree requirements, 61.0 percent, was almost identical with the 61.2 percent of main term registrants in that program. This close correspondence was not general. Associate degrees had 12.9 percent of main term registrations, but only 4.3 percent of the completions, and master's and doctorates were 22.6 percent of enrollments and 33.5 percent of completions. There was also a difference by sex. Main-term enrollments included 54.8 percent men and 45.2 percent women, while degree completions divided into 59.2 percent men and 40.8 percent women. These figures suggest that there may be gradations of persistence and success among the different groups in the student population.[19]

Regional statistics revealed a few variations in degree completions. New England was deviant in having fewer bachelor's requirement completions (42.4 percent) than master's and doctorates (52.7 percent). In Alaska-Hawaii, associate and bachelor's degrees combined accounted for 97.5 percent of all; elsewhere, their totals were from 47.0 percent in New England to 71.1 percent in the Plains States. Otherwise, returns showed rather close congruity. The incidence of associate degrees in all completions ranged from 1.6 percent (Rocky Mountains) to 8.4 percent in the Far West (where the main-term registration in this curriculum was 55.0 percent) and 36.9 percent in Alaska-Hawaii. New England aside, bachelor's degree requirement fulfillments ran from 57.3 percent of all in the Far West (where main-term enrollment for the degree was 29.5 percent) to 66.5 percent in the Southeast (with 69.7 percent of main-term enrollments). Except for the extremes of New England with 52.7 percent and Alaska-Hawaii with 2.5, graduate degree completions clustered near one-third of the total everywhere, from 28.5 percent on the Plains to 37.9 percent in the Great Lakes region. Men outnumbered women among degree completions in all areas except Alaska-Hawaii where women constituted 55.9 percent of the total. Considered by control, only the private institutions of the Plains States reported a preponderance of women (61.0 percent) among those fulfilling requirements. The reader will recall that Alaska-Hawaii and the Plains were the only regions with a majority of women in main-term enrollments.

The unfortunate dearth of statistics in earlier studies precludes discernment and discussion of long-term trends, and other factors make dependable comparisons with regular-session characteristics nearly impossible. Earned degree statistics, not available beyond 1958–59, reported degrees for the entire year, without distinguishing those completed in summer session. The ensuing brief analysis is, consequently, presented gingerly and with the caution that at best it suggests possibilities, not precision.

The proportions of the several types of degrees earned during the entire year and of requirements completed for the same degrees in the summer of 1960 varied considerably at the first two levels. In the regular sessions for years 1955–56, 1956–57, 1957–58, and 1958–59, bachelor's and first professional constituted 82.0, 82.8, 83.1, and 83.0 per-

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[19] There are several qualifying factors. Main-term enrollments included over 145,000 unclassified students, and third terms showed variant enrollment statistics.

Table 54.—Number and percent of students who completed requirements for degrees in summer session, by level

[L=less

Region and control	Number of degrees														
	Total degrees	Men	Women	Level of degrees											
				Associate			Bachelor's			Master's			Doctorates		
				Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Aggregate United States	**91,356**	**54,122**	**37,234**	**3,887**	**2,272**	**1,615**	**55,770**	**31,619**	**24,151**	**28,664**	**18,087**	**10,577**	**1,932**	**1,714**	**218**
Public	63,095	37,755	25,340	2,324	1,212	1,112	38,090	21,570	16,520	20,718	13,594	7,124	1,430	1,269	161
Private	28,261	16,367	11,894	1,563	1,060	503	17,680	10,049	7,631	7,946	4,493	3,453	502	445	57
New England	3,136	2,401	735	143	139	4	1,331	995	336	1,556	1,170	386	97	94	3
Public	870	604	266	--------	--------	--------	385	257	128	482	344	138	3	3	--------
Private	2,266	1,797	469	143	139	4	946	738	208	1,074	826	248	94	91	3
Mideast	10,510	6,289	4,221	574	440	134	5,845	3,600	2,245	3,577	1,846	1,731	213	184	29
Public	3,648	2,216	1,432	40	34	6	2,340	1,436	904	1,182	666	516	81	77	4
Private	6,862	4,073	2,789	534	406	128	3,505	2,164	1,341	2,395	1,180	1,215	132	107	25
Great Lakes	19,614	11,917	7,697	474	361	113	11,471	6,466	5,005	6,912	4,586	2,326	528	466	62
Public	14,322	8,920	5,402	262	165	97	7,511	4,251	3,260	5,942	4,083	1,859	437	389	48
Private	5,292	2,997	2,295	212	196	16	3,960	2,215	1,745	970	503	467	91	77	14
Plains	11,946	6,790	5,156	627	164	463	7,869	3,984	3,885	3,133	2,360	773	272	256	16
Public	9,323	5,768	3,555	504	134	370	5,890	3,264	2,626	2,622	2,089	533	271	255	16
Private	2,623	1,022	1,601	123	30	93	1,979	720	1,259	511	271	240	1	1	--------
Southeast	20,016	11,285	8,731	450	266	184	13,303	7,474	5,829	5,788	3,221	2,567	247	229	18
Public	14,742	8,433	6,309	186	123	63	9,749	5,535	4,214	4,572	2,588	1,984	185	169	16
Private	5,274	2,852	2,422	264	143	121	3,554	1,939	1,615	1,216	633	583	62	60	2
Southwest	9,795	6,264	3,531	233	162	71	6,235	4,065	2,170	3,140	1,911	1,229	111	92	19
Public	7,370	4,702	2,668	192	138	54	4,503	2,929	1,574	2,513	1,532	981	102	85	17
Private	2,425	1,562	863	41	24	17	1,732	1,136	596	627	379	248	9	7	2
Rocky Mountains	5,303	3,323	1,980	82	12	70	3,348	1,996	1,352	1,728	1,199	529	127	110	17
Public	4,179	2,641	1,538	76	11	65	2,557	1,510	1,047	1,420	1,020	400	108	94	14
Private	1,124	682	442	6	1	5	791	486	305	308	179	129	19	16	3
Far West	9,722	5,274	4,448	819	570	249	5,572	2,633	2,939	2,799	1,780	1,019	335	282	53
Public	7,661	4,051	3,610	748	524	224	4,524	2,066	2,458	1,954	1,258	696	241	196	45
Private	2,061	1,223	838	71	46	25	1,048	567	481	845	522	323	94	86	8
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	1,314	579	735	485	158	327	796	406	390	31	14	17	2	1	1
Public	980	420	560	316	83	233	631	322	309	31	14	17	2	1	1
Private	334	159	175	169	75	94	165	84	81	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------

[1] For each line of percentages in this part of the table, the number of "Total degrees" (see first column) is taken as 100 percent.

cents, respectively, of all degrees earned; in the summer session of 1960, requirements completed for the bachelor's and master's degrees were 92.4 percent of the total. In the years listed above, the incidences of master's, or second level, degrees were, respectively, 15.6, 15.1, 14.9, and 15.0 percents of all, as contrasted with 31.4 percent in the 1960 summer session. Doctorates, however, were nearly identical, being 2.4, 2.1, and 2.0 percents in the several academic years named, and 2.1 percent in the 1960 summer session.[20] From these statistics, it would appear that, proportionately, summer sessions place more stress on the graduate curriculums than regular sessions, and that the reverse is true of undergraduate programs.[21]

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[20] Figures from which percentages were derived for 1958–59 were from Wayne E. Tolliver, *Earned Degrees Conferred 1958–1959: Bachelor's and Higher Degrees*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1961, OE–54013, p. 23; for earlier years, statistics from Diane B. Gertler, *Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Education Institutions 1957–1958*, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1959, Office of Education Circular No. 570, p. 1. Since the figures in these volumes do not include associate degrees, these were subtracted from 1960 summer session returns before percentages were derived.

[21] These statistics do not give an exact comparison of the proportions in the two sessions because the *Earned Degrees* series includes summer returns. Actual regular-session proportions would, therefore, be somewhat lower for master's degrees and somewhat higher for bachelor's.

of degree, region, control, and sex: Aggregate United States, 1960

than 0.1%]

Number of degrees—Con.			Percent of degrees[1]															
Level of degrees—Con.																	
Other degrees			Associate			Bachelor's			Master's			Doctorates			Other degrees		
Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
1,103	**430**	**673**	**4.3**	**2.5**	**1.8**	**61.0**	**34.6**	**26.4**	**31.4**	**19.8**	**11.6**	**2.1**	**1.9**	**0.2**	**1.2**	**0.5**	**0.7**
533	110	423	3.7	1.9	1.8	60.4	34.2	26.2	32.8	21.5	11.3	2.3	2.0	.3	.8	.2	.6
570	320	250	5.5	3.7	1.8	62.6	35.6	27.0	28.1	15.9	12.2	1.8	1.6	.2	2.0	1.1	.9
9	3	6	4.6	4.5	.1	42.4	31.7	10.7	49.6	37.3	12.3	3.1	3.0	.1	0.3	.1	.2
--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	44.3	29.6	14.7	55.4	39.5	15.9	.3	.3	--------	--------	--------	--------
9	3	6	6.3	6.1	.2	41.7	32.5	9.2	47.4	36.5	10.9	4.2	4.0	.2	.4	.1	L
301	219	82	5.5	4.2	1.3	55.6	34.2	21.4	34.0	17.5	16.5	2.0	1.7	.3	2.9	2.1	.8
5	3	2	1.1	.9	.2	64.1	39.3	24.8	32.5	18.3	14.2	2.2	2.1	.1	.1	.1	L
296	216	80	7.8	5.9	1.9	51.1	31.5	19.6	34.9	17.2	17.7	1.9	1.5	.4	4.3	3.1	1.2
229	38	191	2.4	1.8	.6	58.5	33.0	25.5	35.2	23.4	11.8	2.7	2.4	.3	1.2	.2	1.0
170	32	138	1.8	1.1	.7	52.4	29.7	22.7	41.5	28.5	13.0	3.1	2.7	.4	1.2	.2	1.0
59	6	53	4.0	3.7	.3	74.9	41.9	33.0	18.3	9.5	8.8	1.7	1.4	.3	1.1	.1	1.0
45	26	19	5.2	1.3	3.9	65.9	33.4	32.5	26.2	19.7	6.5	2.3	2.2	.1	.4	.2	.2
36	26	10	5.4	1.4	4.0	63.2	35.0	28.2	28.1	22.4	5.7	2.9	2.7	.2	.4	.3	.1
9	--------	9	4.7	1.1	3.6	75.5	27.5	48.0	19.5	10.3	9.2	L	L	L	.3	--------	.3
228	95	133	2.3	1.4	.9	66.5	37.4	29.1	28.9	16.1	12.8	1.2	1.1	.1	1.1	.5	.6
50	18	32	1.3	.9	.4	66.1	37.5	28.6	31.0	17.5	13.5	1.3	1.2	.1	.3	.1	.2
178	77	101	5.0	2.7	2.3	67.4	36.8	30.6	23.0	12.0	11.0	1.2	1.1	L	3.4	1.5	1.9
76	34	42	2.4	1.7	.7	63.6	41.5	22.1	32.1	19.5	12.6	1.1	.9	.2	.8	.4	.4
60	18	42	2.6	1.9	.7	61.1	39.7	21.4	34.1	20.8	13.3	1.4	1.2	.2	.8	.2	.6
16	16	--------	1.7	1.0	.7	71.4	46.8	24.6	25.8	15.6	10.2	.4	.3	.1	.7	.7	--------
18	6	12	1.6	.3	1.3	63.1	37.6	25.5	32.6	22.6	10.0	2.4	2.1	.3	.3	.1	.2
18	6	12	1.8	.3	1.5	61.2	36.1	25.1	34.0	24.4	9.6	2.6	2.3	.3	.4	.1	.3
--------	--------	--------	.5	.1	.4	70.4	43.3	27.1	27.4	15.9	11.5	1.7	1.4	.3	--------	--------	--------
197	9	188	8.4	5.9	2.5	57.3	27.1	30.2	28.8	18.3	10.5	3.5	2.9	.6	2.0	.1	1.9
194	7	187	9.8	6.8	3.0	59.1	27.0	32.1	25.5	16.4	9.1	3.1	2.5	.6	2.5	.1	2.4
3	2	1	3.4	2.2	1.2	50.9	27.5	23.4	41.0	25.3	15.7	4.6	4.2	.4	.1	.1	L
--------	--------	--------	36.9	12.0	24.9	60.6	30.9	29.7	2.4	1.1	1.3	.1	L	L	--------	--------	--------
--------	--------	--------	32.2	8.4	23.8	64.4	32.9	31.5	3.2	1.4	1.8	.2	.1	.1	--------	--------	--------
--------	--------	--------	50.6	22.5	28.1	49.4	25.1	24.3	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------

Summer-session degree fulfillments of 1960 were subtracted from the earned degrees of the entire year 1958–59, then divided by the remainder to obtain an estimate of the proportion of annual degrees awarded whose requirements were completed in summer session. The result, 23.2 percent, is somewhat inflated because the summer session of 1960 was larger than that of 1958, for which there were no available data on degree completions. It is probable, then, that summer session students complete the requirements for about one-fifth of the bachelor's, master's, and doctor's degrees annually awarded by American institutions of higher education.

To avoid misinterpretation, the reader must be reminded that the 20 percent of students who earn degrees in summer complete their final, not their total, requirements at that time. It is probable that this was the only summer session attended by some who completed their requirements therein; it is also probable that a number completed all requirements by attending a series of summer sessions. Obviously, we need additional studies to determine the proportion of the degree requirements earned by the average student in summer sessions to determine the contribution of summer terms to the totality of American higher education.

Table 55.—Number of institutions granting degrees in summer session and number of students who completed requirements for degrees, by level of degree, region, State, control, and sex: Aggregate United States, 1960

Region and State	Total institutions	Associate degrees				Bachelor's degrees				Master's degrees				Doctorates				Other degrees			
		Institutions	Total degrees	Men	Women	Institutions	Total degrees	Men	Women	Institutions	Total degrees	Men	Women	Institutions	Total degrees	Men	Women	Institutions	Total degrees	Men	Women
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Aggregate United States	**1,369**	**179**	**3,887**	**2,272**	**1,615**	**773**	**55,770**	**31,619**	**24,151**	**373**	**28,664**	**18,087**	**10,577**	**92**	**1,932**	**1,714**	**218**	**60**	**1,103**	**430**	**673**
Public control	523	106	2,324	1,212	1,112	303	38,090	21,570	16,520	220	20,718	13,594	7,124	64	1,430	1,269	161	38	533	110	423
Private control	846	73	1,563	1,060	503	470	17,680	10,049	7,631	153	7,946	4,493	3,453	28	502	445	57	22	570	320	250
NEW ENGLAND	97	3	143	139	4	42	1,331	995	336	34	1,556	1,170	386	7	97	94	3	2	9	3	6
Connecticut	18	1	39	39	--------	6	128	77	51	5	125	61	64	1	2	2	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
Maine	9	--------	--------	--------	--------	6	146	100	46	1	132	132	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
Massachusetts	53	2	104	100	4	25	985	776	209	22	1,048	857	191	5	92	90	2	2	9	3	6
New Hampshire	3	--------	--------	--------	--------	3	22	2	20	2	13	5	8	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
Rhode Island	9	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	2	44	20	24	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
Vermont	5	--------	--------	--------	--------	2	50	40	10	2	194	95	99	1	3	2	1	--------	--------	--------	--------
MIDEAST	244	22	574	440	134	134	5,845	3,600	2,245	58	3,577	1,846	1,731	9	213	184	29	11	301	219	82
Delaware	2	1	8	3	5	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
District of Columbia	13	2	113	81	32	6	237	130	107	2	145	97	48	1	1	1	--------	1	3	--------	3
Maryland	21	2	17	14	3	12	332	247	85	5	119	111	8	1	18	18	--------	1	1	1	--------
New Jersey	26	5	30	10	20	15	718	497	221	8	274	180	94	1	14	14	--------	1	3	2	1
New York	105	9	154	122	32	47	2,528	1,585	943	31	2,201	960	1,241	3	112	88	24	7	274	196	78
Pennsylvania	77	3	252	210	42	54	2,030	1,141	889	12	838	498	340	3	68	63	5	1	20	20	--------
GREAT LAKES	230	22	474	361	113	136	11,471	6,466	5,005	53	6,912	4,586	2,326	16	528	466	62	13	229	38	191
Illinois	73	7	204	173	31	35	2,200	1,322	878	17	1,365	1,111	254	3	71	63	8	4	69	20	49
Indiana	31	1	10	10	--------	24	1,774	1,091	683	7	1,766	1,052	714	6	180	156	24	2	2	2	--------
Michigan	44	11	171	98	73	23	2,959	1,884	1,075	7	1,753	1,076	677	2	48	44	4	1	8	8	--------
Ohio	54	2	70	61	9	32	2,869	1,521	1,348	15	1,227	798	429	4	111	98	13	3	55	5	50
Wisconsin	28	1	19	19	--------	22	1,669	648	1,021	7	801	549	252	1	118	105	13	3	95	3	92
PLAINS	161	32	627	164	463	107	7,869	3,984	3,885	41	3,133	2,360	773	10	272	256	16	6	45	26	19
Iowa	29	3	29	3	26	18	1,291	633	658	4	576	460	116	2	123	111	12	--------	--------	--------	--------
Kansas	26	2	8	4	4	18	1,232	550	682	6	481	316	165	1	6	6	--------	2	3	3	--------
Minnesota	24	5	70	50	20	16	1,684	925	759	10	581	536	45	1	68	68	--------	1	9	--------	9
Missouri	39	8	106	70	36	21	1,974	921	1,053	8	794	494	300	3	46	42	4	--------	--------	--------	--------
Nebraska	18	3	32	--------	32	16	977	538	439	7	318	216	102	1	26	26	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
North Dakota	9	3	157	21	136	7	331	190	141	2	155	135	20	1	2	2	--------	--------	--------	--------	--------
South Dakota	16	8	225	16	209	11	380	227	153	4	228	203	25	1	1	1	--------	3	33	23	10

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SOUTHEAST	318	43	450	266	184	193	13,303	7,474	5,829	80	5,788	3,221	2,567	22	247	229	18	12	228	95	133
Alabama	21	1	13	5	8	14	1,440	940	500	8	587	301	286	2	23	21	2				
Arkansas	16	2	26	11	15	13	983	483	500	5	398	225	173	1	4	4		1	3		3
Florida	26	8	132	95	37	9	1,011	657	354	6	571	312	259	2	59	56	3	1	7	4	3
Georgia	29	5	23	12	11	15	1,208	689	519	8	387	200	187	3	11	9	2	1	24	6	18
Kentucky	34	5	30	7	23	23	1,519	599	920	9	471	249	222	1	4	3	1	1	25	6	19
Louisiana	19					13	1,122	636	486	6	483	304	179	1	38	36	2	1	1		1
Mississippi	29	7	56	35	21	11	1,056	595	461	4	397	228	169	1	1	1		3	11	6	5
North Carolina	45	7	104	62	42	24	1,122	717	405	8	764	379	385	3	58	55	3	3	156	72	84
South Carolina	24	2	12	9	3	17	799	438	361	6	125	78	47	2	6	3	3				
Tennessee	35	2	25	13	12	23	1,550	887	663	11	970	552	418	3	36	34	2				
Virginia	22	1	15	8	7	16	645	405	240	7	267	174	93	2	6	6					
West Virginia	18	3	14	9	5	15	848	428	420	2	368	219	149	1	1	1		1	1	1	
SOUTHWEST	118	23	233	162	71	66	6,235	4,065	2,170	41	3,140	1,911	1,229	9	111	92	19	9	76	34	42
Arizona	5					3	266	222	44	2	213	187	26					1	1		1
New Mexico	8	1	1		1	7	200	119	81	4	170	114	56	1	2	2		2	9	4	5
Oklahoma	19	3	21	9	12	15	926	603	323	9	556	316	240	1	20	19	1				
Texas	86	19	211	153	58	41	4,843	3,121	1,722	26	2,201	1,294	907	7	89	71	18	6	66	30	36
ROCKY MOUNTAINS	35	8	82	12	70	23	3,348	1,996	1,352	16	1,728	1,199	529	8	127	110	17	3	18	6	12
Colorado	12	1	2		2	9	1,859	1,228	631	6	1,238	831	407	4	90	76	14	2	8	6	2
Idaho	6	1	3	2	1	3	88	32	56	2	17	9	8								
Montana	9	5	76	9	67	7	276	116	160	4	119	78	41	1	2	2		1	10		10
Utah	6	1	1	1		3	919	545	374	3	242	199	43	2	28	25	3				
Wyoming	2					1	206	75	131	1	112	82	30	1	7	7					
FAR WEST[1]	156	21	819	570	249	65	5,572	2,633	2,939	47	2,799	1,780	1,019	10	335	282	53	4	197	9	188
California	121	19	810	563	247	45	3,686	2,066	1,620	31	2,020	1,333	687	5	271	246	25	1	1	1	
Oregon	15					9	630	195	435	7	397	285	112	3	25	24	1				
Washington	19	2	9	7	2	11	1,256	372	884	9	382	162	220	2	39	12	27	3	196	8	188
ALASKA, HAWAII, AND OUTLYING PARTS	10	5	485	158	327	7	796	406	390	3	31	14	17	1	2	1	1				
Alaska	1					1	3	1	2	1	5	2	3								
Hawaii	3					3	147	71	76	1	24	12	12	1	2	1	1				
Canal Zone	1	1	1		1																
Guam	1	1	29	9	20																
Puerto Rico	4	3	455	149	306	3	646	334	312	1	2		2								

---

[1] Nevada, with one institution, did not report.

Commencement Exercises

Accuracy of reporting determined the use of "completion of degree requirements" rather than "degrees granted" in the preceding section. Many students who earned their degrees in the summer of 1960 did not receive them then. Only 364 institutions terminated their sessions with commencement exercises (table 56). There were variations in this practice both by type of institution and by region. Including only respondents, 57.1 percent of teachers colleges, 53.8 percent of technical institutes, and 39.6 percent of universities concluded their summer terms with such ceremonies, while only 4.2 percent of theological schools and 10.4 percent of junior colleges did so. Commencements were most common in the Plains States (40.3 percent), the Southwest (39.5 percent), and the Southeast (39.2 percent), least frequent in Alaska-Hawaii (11.1 percent) and the Far West (14.2 percent). Superficially, this might seem to symbolize the inferiority of the summer session to the spring session, when commencements are almost universal. Actually, the absence probably arises more from motivations of economy, of avoiding discomfort, and of an irrepressible desire to begin postponed vacations than from considerations of status.

Table 56.—Number and percent of institutions with commencement exercises in summer session, by type of institution and region: Aggregate United States, 1960

Type and region	Total institutions	Number of institutions with commencement—			Percent of institutions with commencement—		
		Yes	No	No answer	Yes	No	No answer
Aggregate United States	**1, 369**	**374**	**864**	**131**	**27. 3**	**63. 1**	**9. 6**
4-year institutions							
Universities	145	55	84	6	37. 9	57. 9	4. 2
Liberal arts colleges	592	176	369	47	29. 7	62. 3	8. 0
Independently organized professional schools:							
Teachers colleges	181	97	73	11	53. 6	40. 3	6. 1
Technological schools	33	5	26	2	15. 1	78. 8	6. 1
Theological and religious schools	62	2	46	14	3. 2	74. 2	22. 6
Art schools	32	3	24	5	9. 4	75. 0	15. 6
Other	36	3	23	10	8. 3	63. 9	27. 8
2-year institutions							
Junior colleges	260	24	207	29	9. 2	79. 6	11. 2
Technical institutes	14	7	6	1	50. 0	42. 9	7. 1
Semiprofessional schools	14	2	6	6	14. 2	42. 9	42. 9
Regions							
New England	97	18	70	9	18. 5	72. 2	9. 3
Mideast	244	50	174	20	20. 5	71. 3	8. 2
Great Lakes	230	59	144	27	25. 7	62. 6	11. 7
Plains	161	58	86	17	36. 0	53. 4	10. 6
Southeast	318	113	175	30	35. 6	55. 0	9. 4
Southwest	118	43	66	9	36. 5	55. 9	7. 6
Rocky Mountains	35	12	20	3	34. 3	57. 1	8. 6
Far West	156	20	121	15	12. 8	77. 6	9. 6
Alaska, Hawaii, and outlying parts	10	1	8	1	10. 0	80. 0	10. 0

Summary

The summer sessions of 1960 enrolled about 961,000 students in their main terms, of whom 48.5 percent were reported in the bachelor's curriculums and 20.5 percent in first professional and graduate programs; 54.8 percent of the registrants were men, 45.2 percent women. Nearly three-fourths of the institutions used regular-term admissions requirements; exceptions were made largely to serve transient students and to give doubtful entrants an opportunity to prove themselves academically.

The individual sessions offered a variety of services to their registrants. Subject-field listings were nearly as extensive as those in regular sessions. Most institutions reported that the largest individual class enrollments were under 50, though 90 colleges and universities had classes of more than 100 students. Students were, on the average, permitted to earn approximately nine credits for all terms and actually enrolled for slightly more than seven.

Various individual sessions offered a variety of other services to their registrants. In addition to the regular curriculums, 192 institutions conducted travel programs for credit; 367 continued their undergraduate and 181 their graduate scholarship programs from the regular year into summer session; 696 maintained the same spring and winter term library hours. There were also 1,802 non-degree-credit institutes and workshops sponsored by 362 colleges and universities and enrolling 175,302 students.

In the course of the 1960 summer session, 91,356 students completed the requirements for degrees, including 55,770 bachelor's, 28,664 master's, and 1,932 doctorates. Less than a third of the institutions, however, concluded their summer sessions with commencement exercises.

CHAPTER VIII

Conclusions

THE ORIGIN of the modern summer session is somewhat obscure. It probably evolved from a variety of such antecedents as the teachers institute and the private session, and the "true" summer school did not appear much before 1890. Some of the earlier institutions maintained sound standards and practices throughout, and many did not. Unfortunately and unjustly, the dubious policies and practices of those that did not tended to taint the reputation of all. Because of lack of funds, inferior sessions offered lower salaries and obtained faculties less qualified than those of regular sessions. Forced to operate on tuition income alone, some summer sessions tended to offer unorthodox, even bizarre, courses, over-stressed extracurricular recreation, suspended or ignored regular admissions requirements, and, in a few instances, permitted the earning of a number of credits out of proportion to the brevity of their sessions. Critics of the day seized these practices, loudly denounced them, and often gave the incorrect impression that they were universal.

Whether good or bad, summer sessions at individual institutions usually displayed two persistent tendencies—an almost unbroken growth in enrollment of students and a constant augmentation in the variety of services performed and consequently in types of students attracted. From early specialization in the training of specific groups such as teachers, summer sessions became versatile, all-purpose institutions, offering standard curriculums and exhibiting an unusual sensitivity to current educational needs as evidenced by the presentation of a wide variety of special programs.

The summer of 1960 saw 1,369 institutions of higher education sponsoring summer sessions, the largest number in history. They enrolled approximately 1,200,000 students (960,994 in main terms), offered curriculums in all major subject fields, employed 63,381 faculty members, and enabled 91,356 individuals to complete degree requirements. In addition, they sponsored 1,802 special and noncredit workshops, enrolling 175,302 registrants, and presented 247 foreign and domestic travel courses for credit. About 50 percent of the summer sessions were required to be self-sustaining, and over 60 percent obtained more than half of their revenues from student fees, while almost as many paid the equivalent of regular-session salaries to their faculties.

Have summer sessions improved in quality? What defects remain?

Modern summer sessions, as seen in the survey of 1960, have generally eliminated, or ameliorated, the early defects noted in the preceding chapters. Their faculties compare favorably with those of the regular session in preparation and experience. Curriculums are standard and inclusive; unusual courses are generally offered as non-degree-credit workshops. Brevity remains—less than 30 percent of 1960 summer sessions exceeded 8 weeks—but credit and time were carefully correlated. The most serious remaining deficiencies relate to financial policies. These, however, are not universal. Many sessions had overcome their major defects by 1960; some had none to overcome.

Has the summer session achieved equality with the regular session?

There is no precise, general answer to this question. Perhaps a quarter to a third of the 1960 summer sessions, as a hazardous estimate, have attained equality. The rest have made progress toward it, achieving it in some respects but remaining deficient in others.

Nearly all institutions of higher education offered programs for the same degrees in both regular and summer sessions, employed faculties of comparable quality in both, and accepted credits earned in summer as equal to those earned in regular session. Admissions requirements were the same for both sessions at more than 70 percent of the institutions; exceptions were generally carefully controlled and used for valid purposes. Fiscal officers included summer schools as part of the annual budget at 73 percent of the institutions.

Despite this impressive list of identical characteristics, many summer sessions remained inferior to regular sessions in three basic aspects in 1960. Slightly over 50 percent of those responding had to be self-sustaining, deprived of the financial nourishment of appropriation or endowment which normally fed regular-session budgets. This situation, in turn, could have been a cause for the payment of lower salaries in summer than in regular sessions at 43.5 percent of the responding institutions. Finally, summer session administrative functions and relationships seemed less clearly defined than those of the regular year in some institutions, and the allotment of time for the director's duties was meager in most institutions. Although some summer sessions have improved in most ways, these deficiencies have still continued in others in 1960.

Can summer sessions help to increase the enrollment capacities of institutions of higher education?

Although responses to the 1960 questionnaire reported individual practices which might be more widely adopted to advantage, few institutions gave evidence of comprehensive planning to exploit the full possibilities of summer sessions as a means of enlarging overall enrollment capacity. Pertinent changes would involve financial risk, extensive long-range planning, and, in some instances, a revision of the entire year's schedule and the readjustment of faculty and student habits and attitudes.

Administrators who must plan for the impact of changes may have already established some of these suggestions or other procedures to provide for the impending, unprecedented wave of enrollments which may generate pressures that could shatter established patterns in American colleges and universities. This report may assist them to examine possible means of expansion beforehand to determine policies which will help to maintain good standards and established practices.

Summer sessions offer a versatile range of possibilities in this respect, primarily through acceleration of students' programs. The following plans merit consideration, not as theoretical suggestions but as plans reported to be in use or about to be used.

1. The integration of summer into a program of year-round education either as a fourth quarter or a trimester is the most extreme proposal, entailing maximum financial commitment and program reorganization, but also permitting the maximum enrollment expansion. The questionnaire revealed that only 19 institutions had single summer terms of sufficient length to qualify as trimesters, only 77 as fourth quarters in 1960. Seventeen additional colleges and universities stated that they planned to add fourth quarters, and 26 proposed trimesters.

2. Of nearly 600 institutions which reported that they did not sponsor a summer session in 1960, 77 intended to do so by 1963. Similar action on the part of the remaining 519 would add appreciably to total enrollment capacity. At the same time, initial summer sessions, like trimesters and fourth quarters, would involve considerable financial risk and administrative work.

3. In 1960, 680 institutions listed single-term summer sessions. The sample of multiterm institutions reported that second-term enrollments were about half those of first term, with wide individual variations. Thus the addition of a second term in the 680 colleges and universities should, on the average, increase credit-production by half, assuming equal term lengths, and with less venture than would be involved in the preceding possibilities. Thirty institutions indicated their intention of adding second terms.

4. Lengthening of a present term, or terms, as 20 colleges and universities planned to do in 1961, would permit students to earn more credits in proportion to the increased time.

5. Adding new courses of curriculums in existing terms will enable the 104 institutions which proposed to do so to increase capacity by serving more students.

6. A number of colleges and universities also reported that they will encourage beginning freshmen to enter in summer rather than fall term; some will require "border-line" applicants to do so to secure admission. This policy should reduce the usual fall term overload and level enrollments more evenly through the several sessions. It will

necessitate offering a program of freshman courses in the summer and some rearrangement of the usual regular-year schedule.

Admittedly, these proposals involve financial risk and additional planning and administration in varying degrees, nor is it contended that any or all of them is the complete answer to the need for drastically increased enrollment capacity. At the same time, any or all of them, again in varying degrees, will ameliorate the problem. It bears repetition that these plans are not theoretical but were in use in 1960 or to be initiated shortly thereafter.

* * *

The major substantive recommendations derived from data revealed by the 1960 questionnaire are evident. To remove lingering aspects of inferiority, institutions should wherever possible remove the requirements for self-sufficiency and raise salary scales to equality with those of regular session. The time allotment credited to the director for his summer administrative duties needs to be substantially increased in most instances. Colleges and universities should also give serious consideration to those feasible means of enrollment expansion which may suit their peculiar conditions.

Another type of action is imperative. The paucity of information on most aspects of summer session has been evident at every turn. Hopefully, the present study has made a beginning in overcoming this lack, but it could not include all necessary detailed analyses. Interested organizations and others might undertake general surveys to gather additional basic data, to determine trends, and to explore in depth studies of important aspects of the summer session only skimmed here. The scholar seeking a topic for research or the graduate student casting about for an interesting and worthwhile thesis subject might consider the summer session an area for fruitful investigation.

The preceding chapters contain numerous references to specific needs, and only a few will be reiterated here. It is desirable to have more information on financial policies and practices, on the composition and objectives of the summer-session student body, on the functions and powers of administrators, and on the characteristics of the non-degree-credit workshops, to mention only a few. Case studies of the development and important aspects of summer sessions in individual institutions would give solid bases for valid generalizations.

To paraphrase Sir Winston Churchill, we are certainly not at the beginning of the end of the study of summer session, and we are probably not at the end of the beginning.

Appendix

Survey Questionnaire

OE-DHE-240(10-60)
RSH-88

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION
WASHINGTON 25, D. C.

BUDGET BUREAU NO. 51-6028
APPROVAL EXPIRES 6-30-61

SUMMER SESSION PROGRAMS 1960: A COMPREHENSIVE SURVEY OF POLICIES AND PROCEDURES IN SUMMER SESSIONS OF INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Retain this copy for your files.

IF YOUR INSTITUTION HAS *NO* BRANCHES, Check here ☐

THIS REPORT *INCLUDES* BRANCHES AS FOLLOWS:

THIS REPORT *EXCLUDES* BRANCHES AS FOLLOWS:

GENERAL INFORMATION

The *summer session* of *institutions of higher education* is receiving increased attention as to its potential value as an integral part of a year-long academic program.

The intent of this survey is to provide needed information to those persons responsible for summer session programs, in order to assist them to–

1. Determine ways and means of making the summer session programs more effective;
2. Determine needs for new programs or the modification or expansion of existing ones;
3. Attain an understanding of the relationship of the summer session to other facets of higher education programming.

Summer session programs include all programs offered by institutions of higher education during the summer months. The term "summer session" as defined in this survey includes all programs offered in the summer; the summer session may be divided into two or more terms.

This study seeks specific data about the summer sessions of institutions of higher education as follows:

PART I – NATURE, CHARACTERISTICS, AND PURPOSES
PART II – FINANCING
PART III – FACULTY AND STAFF
PART IV – STUDENTS

DIRECTIONS

a Please provide the data requested below regarding your *1960 summer session.* Where specific data are not readily available, make an estimate and mark with an asterisk(*).

b If your institution did *not* offer a summer session in 1960, but is planning to do so in the near future, check here and answer questions 2, 3, and 6, and return the questionnaire. ☐

c If your institution does *not* offer a summer session and does not plan to offer one in the near future, check here and return the questionnaire. ☐

PART I – NATURE, CHARACTERISTICS AND PURPOSES

1 CHIEF ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICER IN CHARGE OF THE SUMMER SESSION OF YOUR INSTITUTION
NAME: TITLE:

2 ORIGIN AND MODIFICATION OF SUMMER SESSION:

A HAS A SUMMER SESSION BEEN OFFERED BY YOUR INSTITUTION AT ANY TIME SINCE 1950?
1 ☐ YES 2 ☐ NO

B IF YES, GIVE THE YEARS DURING WHICH A SUMMER SESSION WAS OFFERED:
FROM: 19 ________ TO: 19 ________
FROM: 19 ________ TO: 19 ________

3 IF YOUR INSTITUTION DOES NOT NOW OFFER A SUMMER SESSION, BUT IS PLANNING TO DO SO IN THE NEAR FUTURE,
CHECK THE YEAR FOR WHICH IT IS PLANNED. 1961 ________;
1962 ________ ; OTHER (GIVE YEAR) ____________ .

4 ORGANIZATION - UNIT BASE

A CHECK (X) WHETHER THE SUMMER SESSION IN YOUR INSTITUTION IS BEST DESCRIBED AS:

1 ☐ A FOURTH QUARTER
2 ☐ A THIRD TRIMESTER (APPROXIMATELY 15 WEEKS IN LENGTH)
3 ☐ NEITHER A FOURTH QUARTER NOR A THIRD TRIMESTER

B WERE STUDENTS PERMITTED TO ENROLL FOR TWO OR MORE TERMS DURING THE 1960 SUMMER SESSION WHEN THE TERMS WERE:

(1) TAKING PLACE AT SAME TIME 1 ☐ YES 2 ☐ NO
(2) PARTIALLY OVERLAPPING 1 ☐ YES 2 ☐ NO

C IN THE APPROPRIATE SPACES BELOW, LIST EACH TERM HELD BY YOUR INSTITUTION DURING THE SUMMER OF 1960. (EXCLUDE NONDEGREE INSTITUTES AND WORKSHOPS, WHICH ARE TO BE LISTED IN 4 D.) FOR EACH TERM LISTED HERE, GIVE THE BEGINNING AND ENDING DATES, LENGTH OF TERM IN WEEKS, AVERAGE NUMBER OF HOURS EARNED, ENROLLMENT BY DEGREES AND BY SEX, NONDEGREE ENROLLMENT, AND TOTAL ENROLLMENT. (IN MANY INSTITUTIONS THE SUMMER SESSION IS DIVIDED INTO TWO OR MORE TERMS: AN INTERSESSION, A POST-SESSION, ETC. INCLUDE ALL TERMS.)

	TERMS (LIST BY NAME OR NUMBER. EXCLUDE NONDEGREE INSTITUTES AND WORKSHOPS)	DATES (MONTH & DAY)		LENGTH OF TERM IN WEEKS	AVERAGE NUMBER HOURS EARNED (for typ. student)	ENROLLMENT									
						BY DEGREE AND SEX								WITHOUT CREDIT TOWARDS A DEGREE	TOTAL (COLS. 6-14)
						ASSOCIATE		BACHELOR'S		FIRST PROFESSIONAL*		DOCTORATE (Ph.D., Ed.D., etc. and Master's)			
		BEGINNING	ENDING			MEN	WOMEN	MEN	WOMEN	MEN	WOMEN	MEN	WOMEN		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(5)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)
1															
2															
3															
4															
5															
6															

* *First Professional Degrees, e.g., M.D., D.D.S., D.V.S., L.L.B., and other such degrees should be included in col. 10 and 11; but not in col. 8, 9, 12, or 13.*

D IN THE APPROPRIATE SPACES BELOW, LIST THE NONDEGREE-CREDIT INSTITUTES AND WORKSHOPS SPONSORED PRIMARILY BY YOUR INSTITUTION DURING THE 1960 SUMMER SESSION. GIVE THE BEGINNING AND ENDING DATES OF EACH, TOGETHER WITH ENROLLMENT OF MEN AND WOMEN AND TOTAL ENROLLMENT.

	NAMES OF NONDEGREE-CREDIT INSTITUTES AND WORKSHOPS	DATES (MONTH & DAY)		ENROLLMENT		
		BEGINNING	ENDING	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						

5 CREDIT-HOUR BASE. CHECK (X) IN THE APPROPRIATE BOX BELOW TO INDICATE WHETHER COURSE CREDITS EARNED DURING YOUR 1960 SUMMER SESSION WERE RECORDED AS:

1 ☐ SEMESTER HOURS 2 ☐ QUARTER HOURS 3 ☐ OTHER (SPECIFY)

6 SUMMER SESSION EXPANSION

		CHECK ONE	
		YES	NO
A	IF YOUR INSTITUTION IS PLANNING TO EXPAND ITS SUMMER SESSION PROGRAM IN THE NEAR FUTURE, OR BEGIN SUCH A PROGRAM, CHECK HERE AND DESCRIBE YOUR PLANS BRIEFLY. (INCLUDE EXTENT OF EXPANSION, ORGANIZATION, LENGTH OF TERM, METHOD OF FINANCING, CURRICULUM, LIST OF BUILDINGS TO BE AIR-CONDITIONED AND OTHER MAJOR CHANGES AND IMPROVEMENTS.)	1	2
		YES	NO
B	IF YOUR INSTITUTION IS PLANNING TO DECREASE OR TO DISCONTINUE ITS SUMMER PROGRAM IN THE NEAR FUTURE, CHECK HERE AND DESCRIBE YOUR PLANS BRIEFLY.	1	2

7 DEGREES

		YES	NO
A	DOES YOUR INSTITUTION HAVE A COMMENCEMENT CEREMONY DURING OR AFTER ITS SUMMER SESSION?	1	2

			NUMBER OF DEGREES	
B	GIVE THE NUMBER OF DEGREES FOR WHICH REQUIREMENTS WERE COMPLETED DURING YOUR 1960 SUMMER SESSION, BY LEVEL OF DEGREE AND BY SEX OF THE RECIPIENT.		MEN	WOMEN
	1	Doctorate (Ph.D., Ed.D., etc.)		
	2	Second level degree (Master's, except First Professional)		
	3	Bachelor's and/or First Professional (e.g., M.D., D.D.S., D.V.M., L.L.D., B.D., etc.)		
	4	Associate (2-year)		
	5	Other (specify)		
	6			

		YES	NO
C	DOES YOUR INSTITUTION GRANT CREDIT FOR WORK DONE IN ITS SUMMER SESSION TOWARD DEGREE *RESIDENCE* REQUIREMENTS'	1	2

8 PURPOSES OF THE SUMMER SESSION: CHECK (✓) IN THE APPROPRIATE COLUMN TO INDICATE THE IMPORTANCE YOUR INSTITUTION GIVES TO EACH OF THE FOLLOWING PURPOSES WHEN PLANNING ITS SUMMER SESSION.

		MUCH (✓)	AVERAGE (✓)	SLIGHT (✓)	NONE (✓)
		4	3	2	1
A	ACCELERATION. To provide for students of the fall and spring sessions opportunity to accelerate their programs and obtain their degrees or certificates earlier than would be otherwise possible.				
B	REHABILITATION. To provide for students of the fall and spring sessions opportunity to repair subject matter deficiencies.				
C	DEMONSTRATION. To provide for the institution the opportunity to demonstrate new program ideas.				
D	EXPLORATION. To provide for students and faculty opportunity to engage in cooperative approach to problems through workshops, seminars, institutes, etc.				
E	ENRICHMENT. To provide for students opportunity to become more proficient in their special fields by making additional elective courses available.				
F	EXPANSION. To provide opportunity to the largest possible number of students by making the summer session an integral part of an all-year academic program.				
G	OTHER. *(specify)*				

9 **ORGANIZATION**

A INDICATE THE OFFICER TO WHOM THE CHIEF ADMINISTRATOR OF THE SUMMER SESSION IS DIRECTLY RESPONSIBLE:

1 ☐ PRESIDENT 3 ☐ OTHER *(Specify)*
2 ☐ DEAN OF FACULTIES

B DOES YOUR INSTITUTION HAVE AN ADVISORY COMMITTEE (OR SIMILAR GROUP) TO ADVISE THE SUMMER SESSION CHIEF ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICER? 1 ☐ YES 2 ☐ NO

IF YES GIVE THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION:

1 NAME OF GROUP

2 COMPOSITION OF GROUP *(Give number of Personnel):*

ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF	FACULTY MEMBERS
NUMBER	NUMBER

3 FUNCTION OF GROUP *(Check appropriate one(s)):* (✓)

A	ADVISORY ONLY	1
B	PROGRAM APPROVAL	1
C	FACULTY SELECTION APPROVAL	1
D	BUDGET APPROVAL	1
E	OTHER *(specify)*	1

4 MEMBERS OF THIS GROUP ARE

A APPOINTED BY *(Specify by title)*

B ELECTED BY *(Specify by group)*

C EX-OFFICIO MEMBERS *(Check here)* ☐

Check in the appropriate box and give information as requested:

		YES	NO
5	IS THE PERSON IN CHARGE OF THE SUMMER SESSION PROGRAM REGULARLY EMPLOYED FULL TIME BY YOUR INSTITUTION?	1	2

		PERCENT
6	IF ANSWER TO QUESTION 5 IS YES, WHAT PERCENT OF HIS YEARLY SERVICE DOES THE PERSON IN CHARGE OF THE SUMMER SESSION GIVE TO SUMMER SESSION ADMINISTRATION?	%

		YES	NO
7	DO DEPARTMENT CHAIRMEN CARRY THE SAME RESPONSIBILITY FOR ORGANIZING THEIR DIVISIONS FOR SUMMER SESSION PROGRAMS AS THEY DO FOR PROGRAMS OFFERED DURING THE REGULAR SESSIONS?	1	2

PART II – FINANCING

The budget accounts mentioned in the questions below are used in the Office of Education's survey of "Financial Statistics of Institutions of Higher Education," and are in accord with *College and University Business Administration*, Volume I, published by the American Council on Education. The comptroller or business officer in your institution who supplies financial data to the Office of Education should be consulted in the preparation of answers to the questions in this section.

		YES	NO
1	DOES YOUR INSTITUTION HAVE A 12-MONTH BUDGET WHICH PROVIDES FOR SUMMER SESSION EXPENDITURES?	1	2
2	IS THE SUMMER SESSION REQUIRED TO BE SELF-SUSTAINING?	YES 1	NO 2

3	WHAT PERCENT OF YOUR INSTITUTION'S "EDUCATIONAL AND GENERAL EXPENDITURES" FOR THE FISCAL YEAR (12-MONTHS) DID YOU SPEND FOR YOUR 1960 SUMMER SESSION?	PERCENT %
4	WHAT PERCENT OF YOUR 1960 SUMMER SESSION "EDUCATIONAL AND GENERAL INCOME" WAS OBTAINED FROM STUDENT TUITION AND FEES?	PERCENT %
5	WHAT WAS THE TOTAL AMOUNT OF YOUR EXPENDITURES IN THE ACCOUNT "INSTRUCTION AND DEPARTMENTAL RESEARCH" FOR YOUR 1960 SUMMER SESSION?	TOTAL AMOUNT $

		YES	NO
6	WERE THE CONTRACTUAL ARRANGEMENTS FOR MOST OF YOUR 1960 SUMMER SESSION FACULTY A PART OF AN 11- OR 12-MONTH SERVICE CONTRACT?	1	2

7	INDICATE BELOW HOW FACULTY SALARIES FOR THE 1960 SUMMER SESSION COMPARED WITH THOSE PAID FOR THE REGULAR ACADEMIC YEAR IN YOUR INSTITUTION, ASSUMING EQUIVALENT TIME AND WORK LOADS. SUMMER SESSION SALARIES WERE:	CHECK ONE
A	HIGHER THAN THOSE PAID DURING THE REGULAR ACADEMIC YEAR	
B	EQUAL TO THOSE PAID DURING THE REGULAR ACADEMIC YEAR	
C	LOWER THAN THOSE PAID DURING THE REGULAR ACADEMIC YEAR	

IF YOU HAVE CHECKED EITHER (A) OR (C) ABOVE, DESCRIBE YOUR CURRENT SUMMER SESSION SALARY PRACTICES AND THE FACTORS WHICH CONTRIBUTED TO THIS DIFFERENTIAL IN SALARY. *(e.g., Are visiting faculty and regular faculty on the same salary schedule? Are summer session faculty paid a percent of the base pay for their work rather than a specified percent of their regular salary, etc.)*

		YES	NO
8	DOES YOUR INSTITUTION HAVE A SCHOLARSHIP PROGRAM FOR STUDENTS ENROLLED DURING THE REGULAR ACADEMIC YEAR?	1	2

IF "YES" ARE THE BENEFITS OF THESE SCHOLARSHIPS ALSO APPLICABLE FOR STUDY DURING THE SUMMER SESSION FOR:

A UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS *(Check)* 1 ☐ YES 2 ☐ NO B GRADUATE STUDENTS *(Check)* 1 ☐ YES 2 ☐ NO

PART III – FACULTY AND STAFF

1 IN THE APPROPRIATE SPACES BELOW GIVE THE FULL-TIME EQUIVALENT NUMBER OF INSTRUCTIONAL FACULTY MEMBERS EMPLOYED IN YOUR 1960 SUMMER SESSION FOR EACH TERM ACCORDING TO ACADEMIC RANK, AND BY SEX. IF YOUR INSTITUTION DOES NOT HAVE ACADEMIC RANK, CHECK HERE, AND REPORT THE TOTAL NUMBER OF FACULTY MEMBERS IN THE "OTHER (*Specify*)" COLUMN. *(Administrators, graduate assistants, or others who are teaching classes but do not have academic rank should be listed in the "OTHER (Specify)" column, and specified by titles.)* ☐

A 1960 SUMMER SESSION INSTRUCTIONAL FACULTY *(Number according to academic rank)*

SUMMER SESSION TERMS			PROFESSORS	ASSOCIATE PROFESSORS	ASSISTANT PROFESSORS	INSTRUCTORS	OTHER *(specify)*	TOTAL
1	TERM I	MEN						
		WOMEN						
2	TERM II	MEN						
		WOMEN						
3	TERM III	MEN						
		WOMEN						
4	TERM IV	MEN						
		WOMEN						
5	TERM V	MEN						
		WOMEN						

B IN THE APPROPRIATE COLUMNS GIVE THE NUMBER OF INSTRUCTIONAL FACULTY MEMBERS EMPLOYED IN YOUR 1960 SUMMER SESSION BY HIGHEST DEGREE HELD, AND BY SEX.

		DOCTORATE *(Ph.D., Ed.D., etc.)*	MASTER'S *(except First Professional)*	BACHELOR'S AND/OR FIRST PROFESSIONAL*	OTHER *(specify)*
1	MEN				
2	WOMEN				

* *Includes M.D., D.D.S., D.V.M., L.L.B., B.D., etc.*

C GIVE THE USUAL FULL-TIME TEACHING LOAD IN CREDIT HOURS FOR FACULTY MEMBERS OF YOUR 1960 SUMMER SESSION FOR:

	FACULTY MEMBERS	CREDIT HOURS
1	PROFESSORS	
2	ASSOCIATE PROFESSORS	
3	ASSISTANT PROFESSORS	
4	INSTRUCTORS	

D IN THE DETERMINATION OF TEACHING LOAD FOR THE SUMMER SESSION, IS TEACHING CREDIT GIVEN FOR DIRECTING THESES AND DISSERTATIONS?

1 ☐ YES 2 ☐ NO

PART IV – STUDENTS

1 ARE ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS FOR THE SUMMER SESSION IN YOUR INSTITUTION THE SAME AS FOR ADMISSION TO THE REGULAR ACADEMIC YEAR AT ALL LEVELS?

1 ☐ YES 2 ☐ NO

IF "NO", EXPLAIN BRIEFLY

2 GIVE THE NUMBER OF CLASSES OR SECTIONS, *(i.e., units in which students meet together for basic instruction)* HELD DURING YOUR 1960 SUMMER SESSION ACCORDING TO ENROLLMENT

STUDENT ENROLLMENT	NUMBER OF CLASSES OR SECTIONS
OVER 100	
90 – 100	
80 – 89	
70 – 79	
60 – 69	
50 – 59	
40 – 49	
30 – 39	
20 – 29	
10 – 19	
UNDER 10	

3 INDICATE WHETHER YOUR INSTITUTION CONDUCTED DEGREE-CREDIT COURSES FOR UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS, GRADUATE STUDENTS, AND NONDEGREE-CREDIT COURSES, DURING THE 1960 SUMMER SESSION IN THE FOLLOWING SUBJECT FIELDS. *(Check (X) in the appropriate box below.)*

			SUBJECT FIELDS	DEGREE-CREDIT COURSES		NONDEGREE CREDIT COURSES
				UNDER-GRAD.	GRADUATE	
		1	AGRICULTURE			
		2	ARCHITECTURE			
BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES		3	BIOLOGY, GENERAL			
		4	BOTANY			
		5	ZOOLOGY			
		6	BIOCHEMISTRY			
		7	OTHER BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES			
		8	BUSINESS AND COMMERCE			
EDUCATION	EDUCATION: SPECIALIZED TEACHING FIELDS	9	PHYSICAL EDUC., HEALTH EDUC., RECREATION			
		10	EDUCATION OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN			
		11	AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION			
		12	ART EDUCATION			
		13	BUSINESS EDUCATION, COMMERCIAL EDUC., DISTRIBUTIVE EDUC.			
		14	HOME ECONOMICS EDUCATION			
		15	INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION (NON-VOCATIONAL)			
		16	MUSIC EDUCATION			
		17	TRADE AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION (VOCATIONAL)			
		18	OTHER SPECIALIZED TEACHING FIELDS			
	GEN. TEACHING FIELDS	19	NURSERY AND/OR KINDERGARTEN EDUC.			
		20	EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION (THROUGH PRIMARY GRADES)			
		21	ELEMENTARY EDUCATION			
		22	SECONDARY EDUCATION			
		23	HIGHER EDUCATION			
		24	ADULT EDUCATION			
		25	OTHER GENERAL TEACH. FIELDS			
	NON-TEACHING FIELDS	26	COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE			
		27	EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERV., EDUC. FINANCE, CURRICULUM, COMPARATIVE EDUCATION, ETC.			
		28	OTHER NON-TEACHING FIELDS			

		SUBJECT FIELDS	DEGREE-CREDIT COURSES		NONDEGREE CREDIT COURSES
			UNDER-GRAD.	GRADUATE	
	29	ENGINEERING			
English & Journalism	30	ENGLISH AND LITERATURE			
	31	JOURNALISM			
FINE AND APPLIED ARTS	32	HISTORY OF ART			
	33	PAINTING OR DRAWING			
	34	COMMERCIAL ART AND ADVERTISING DESIGN			
	35	FASHION DESIGN			
	36	MUSIC, (INCL. SACRED MUSIC)			
	37	SPEECH AND DRAMATIC ARTS			
	38	OTHER FINE AND APPLIED ARTS			
FOREIGN LANGUAGE & LITERATURE	39	FRENCH			
	40	GERMAN			
	41	ITALIAN			
	42	RUSSIAN			
	43	SPANISH			
	44	OTHER FOREIGN LANGUAGES			
	45	FORESTRY			
	46	GEOGRAPHY			
HEALTH PROFESSIONS	47	DENTISTRY			
	48	MEDICINE			
	49	NURSING			
	50	PHARMACY			
	51	VETERINARY MEDICINE			
	52	OTHER			
	53	HOME ECONOMICS			
	54	LAW			
	55	LIBRARY SCIENCE			
Math. Subjects	56	MATHEMATICS			
	57	STATISTICS (INCL. ACTUARIAL SCIENCE)			
	58	PHILOSOPHY			
PHYSICAL SCIENCES	59	CHEMISTRY			
	60	PHYSICS			
	61	GEOLOGY			
	62	OTHER PHYSICAL SCIENCES			
	63	PSYCHOLOGY			
RELIGION	64	RELIGIOUS EDUCATION AND BIBLE			
	65	THEOLOGY			
	66	OTHER			

		SUBJECT FIELDS	DEGREE-CREDIT COURSES		NONDEGREE CREDIT COURSES			SUBJECT FIELDS	DEGREE-CREDIT COURSES		NONDEGREE CREDIT COURSES
			UNDER-GRAD.	GRADUATE					UNDER-GRAD.	GRADUATE	
BASIC SOCIAL SCIENCES	67.	AMERICAN CIVILIZATION, AMERICAN CULTURE					75	AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS			
	68	ANTHROPOLOGY				APPLIED SOCIAL SCIENCES	76	INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS			
	69	ECONOMICS					77	PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION			
	70	HISTORY					78	SOCIAL WORK, SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION			
	71	INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS					79	OTHER APPLIED SOCIAL SCIENCES			
	72	POLITICAL SCIENCE OR GOVERNMENT					80	TRADE AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING			
	73	SOCIOLOGY									
	74	OTHER BASIC SOCIAL SCIENCES									

4	PLEASE ESTIMATE WHAT PERCENT OF YOUR TOTAL 1960 SUMMER SESSION ENROLLMENT WERE PERSONS WHO ARE NORMALLY ENGAGED IN, OR PREPARING FOR, CLASSROOM TEACHING AT THE ELEMENTARY OR SECONDARY SCHOOL LEVEL? *(Exclude those engaged in, or preparing for, School Administration.)*	PERCENT %
5	GIVE THE USUAL MAXIMUM NUMBER OF CREDIT HOURS A TYPICAL STUDENT MAY HAVE EARNED DURING THE 1960 SUMMER SESSION *(including all terms of summer session).*	CREDIT HOURS
A	ARE SELECTED STUDENTS PERMITTED TO ENROLL FOR MORE THAN THE USUAL MAXIMUM CREDIT HOURS?	1 ☐ YES 2 ☐ NO
B	GIVE THE AVERAGE NUMBER OF CREDIT HOURS FOR WHICH STUDENTS ENROLLED DURING THE ENTIRE 1960 SUMMER SESSION.	CREDIT HOURS

6 TRAVEL PROGRAMS. *Give the maximum number of credit hours a student may have earned (programs sponsored primarily by your institution) during the 1960 summer session for:*

A DOMESTIC TRAVEL CREDIT HOURS ________

B FOREIGN TRAVEL CREDIT HOURS ________

C DESCRIBE THE PROGRAMS BRIEFLY

		CHECK ONE	
7	CHECK (X) IN THE APPROPRIATE SPACE TO INDICATE WHETHER THE LIBRARY STUDY HOURS AVAILABLE TO THE STUDENTS DURING THE 1960 SUMMER SESSIONS WERE:		
1	SHORTER THAN FOR REGULAR ACADEMIC SESSION	1	
2	SAME AS FOR REGULAR ACADEMIC SESSION	2	
3	LONGER THAN FOR REGULAR ACADEMIC SESSION	3	

INFORMATION SUPPLIED BY

NAME	TITLE	DATE

U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE : 1964 O—691-209